

THE MAP APPROACH TO
MODERN HISTORY

1789—1939

BROWN AND COYSH

Third Edition



UNIVERSITY TUTORIAL PRESS LTD

MUKAND LAL NATIONAL COLLEGE
LIBRARY



YAMUNA NAGAR

Class No...911.....
Book No...B.81257.....
Accession No...J.D.5.88....



This is from:-
Lyal Book Depot.
Chaura Bazar
LUDHIANA

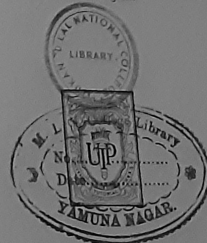
THE MAP APPROACH TO
BRITISH HISTORY
1603-1914

By W. E. BROWN, M.A., and
A. W. COYSH, M.Sc.
Second Edition.

THE MAP APPROACH TO
AFRICAN HISTORY
By A. M. HEALY, B.A., and
E. R. VERE-HODGE, M.A., Ph.D.
In Preparation.

THE MAP APPROACH TO
MODERN HISTORY
1789 - 1939

BY
W. E. BROWN, M.A.
Senior History Master, Bolton School
AND
A. W. COYSH, M.Sc.
Formerly Geography and Sixth Form Master, Yardley Grammar
School, Birmingham



UNIVERSITY TUTORIAL PRESS LTD
Clifton House, Euston Road, London, N.W.1

PREFACE

THIS book is obviously not intended to displace either the textbook or the historical atlas, but to provide a supplementary help in teaching the complicated problems of modern history. Textbooks are never adequately illustrated with maps, and beginners in historical study find atlases difficult to use because of their accumulation of detail. These maps should arouse the pupil's interest in a number of specific problems, and by drastic selection and dramatic emphasis point to the geographical factors in their solution. The text, so placed that it can be consulted at the same time as the map, merely provides a commentary, brief, clear and accurate within its necessary limits, on each problem, and does not pretend to be a full explanation of the map.

The book should prove helpful to pupils in the upper forms of secondary schools, by assisting them to think their way into the problems of modern history instead of merely memorising facts. Used as a revision book it should stimulate fresh thinking about facts already known. The maps are very far from being exhaustive, and many more exercises along the same lines might be suggested by their study. The book may also be useful to students of historical geography and to others who are interested in the background of modern problems.

The authors wish to acknowledge the inspiration which they have received from J. F. Horrabin's presentation of this type of problem in his *Atlas of Current Affairs*, and the assistance of Robertson and Bartholomew's *Historical Atlas of Modern Europe*, an excellent guide to the historical geography of the period. They also wish to express their gratitude to their colleague Mr. A. E. Williamson, B.A., for his kindness in reading and correcting the manuscript.

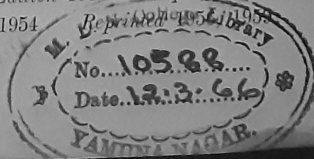
W. E. B., A. W. C.

NOTE TO THE THIRD EDITION

In the present edition additional material (Maps 32-37) has been included to extend the period covered to 1939.

W. E. B., A. W. C.

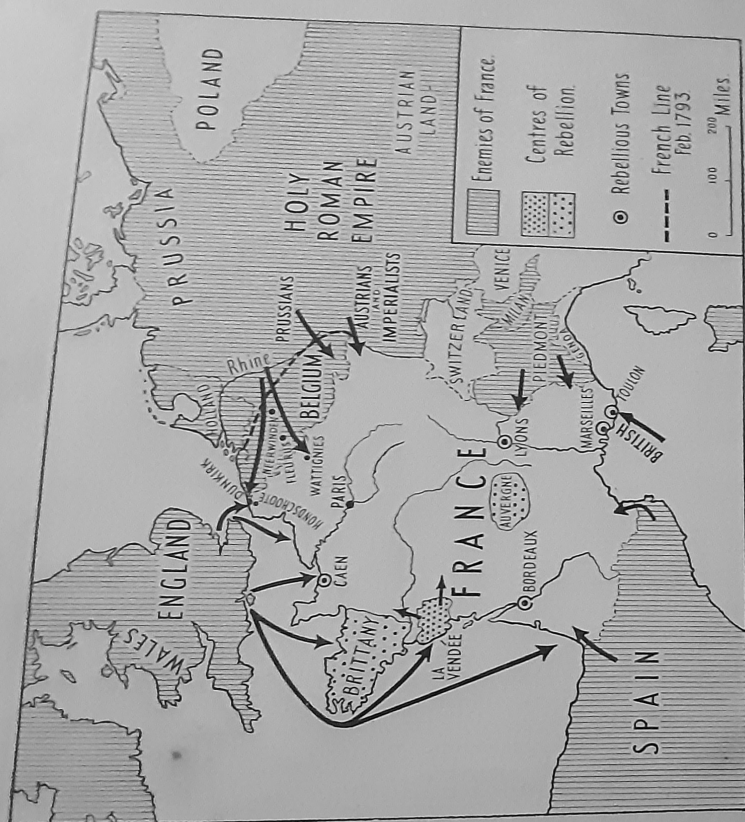
Published 1935 Second Edition 1938 Reprinted 1943, 1945, 1948
Third Edition 1954



CONTENTS

MAP		Page
1.	THE FRENCH CRISIS OF 1793	1
2.	THE BRITISH CRISIS OF 1794	2
3.	NAPOLEON'S CAMPAIGNS AGAINST AUSTRIA	3
4.	NAPOLEON'S DOMINATION OF EUROPE, 1806-18	4
5.	THE PARTITIONS OF POLAND	5
6.	POLAND IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY	6
7.	BARRIERS AGAINST FRANCE, 1815	7
8.	THE PROBLEM OF THE NETHERLANDS	8
9.	REVOLUTIONS IN EUROPE, 1820-49	9
10.	PRUSSIA'S DOMINATION OF GERMANY	10
11.	SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN	11
12.	THE FRANCO-GERMAN WAR OF 1870	12
13.	THE GERMAN EMPIRE	13
14.	AUSTRIA, 1815-1914	14
15.	THE UNIFICATION OF ITALY	15
16.	THE DECAY OF THE TURKISH EMPIRE	16
17.	TURKEY AND THE CREEAN WAR	17
18.	THE GROWTH OF GREECE	18
19.	THE GROWTH OF SERBIA	19
20.	THE BULGARIAN PROBLEM	20
21.	ROMANIA	21
22.	RUSO-BRITISH RIVALRY	22
23.	CHINA AND THE GREAT POWERS	23
24.	RUSO-JAPANESE RIVALRY	24
25.	FRANCE AND THE MEDITERRANEAN	25
26.	THE EXPLORATION OF AFRICA	26
27.	THE PARTITION OF NORTHERN AFRICA	27
28.	THE PARTITION OF SOUTHERN AFRICA	28
29.	AMERICA AFTER THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION	29
30.	THE GROWTH OF THE UNITED STATES	30
31.	THE TRIPLE ALLIANCE AND TRIPLE ENTENTE	31
32.	GERMANY AND THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES	32
33.	FRANCE AND THE CONTROL OF EUROPE, 1919-39	33
34.	HITLER'S AGGRESSIONS, 1938-9	34
35.	MUSSOLINI AND THE ITALIAN EMPIRE	35
36.	ARAB PROBLEMS, 1919-39	36
37.	THE EXPANSION OF JAPAN	37
	INDEX TO MAPS	38

The maps are given on the left-hand page and the corresponding text on the right-hand page to facilitate the examination of the maps whilst studying the text.



Map 1.

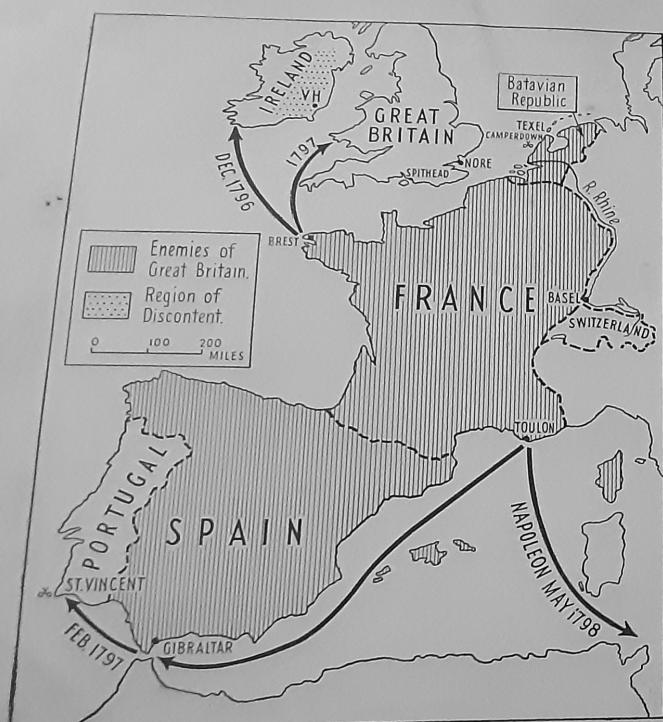
MAP 1.—THE FRENCH CRISIS OF 1793

THE French Revolution of 1789 was the cause of serious disputes between the French and the Holy Roman Emperor, and the position of Louis XVI. in 1792. Dumouriez saved France from invasion, and the French armies occupied Belgium and the Rhineland. Meanwhile France became a republic, the Girondist government declared its intention to free all the peoples of Europe, and the Jacobin party brought the King to trial and execution. (January, 1793.)

Britain, Holland, Spain, Sardinia-Piedmont, and the Empire now joined in the war, and Britain became the paymaster of a great coalition. Switzerland remained neutral, and through this one doorway from the outer world France secured precious supplies. Otherwise every frontier was attacked and the British fleet controlled the seas. The crisis came to a head when Dumouriez, defeated at Neerwinden and driven out of Belgium, deserted to the Austrians. A strong dictatorship, the Committee of Public Safety, was at once set up under Jacobin control, and conscription was introduced where necessary for recruiting the armies. These measures saved France, but shortly led to—

- (1) Peasant risings against conscription in Brittany, Auvergne, and La Vendée, led by the priests;
- (2) The suppression of the Girondist opposition, who stirred up disaffection in Marseilles and Bordeaux, a quickly suppressed revolt at Caen in Normandy, a much more serious revolt in Lyons, and the betrayal of Toulon to the British fleet;
- (3) The Reign of Terror to overawe the French people and restore discipline in the armies.

The Vendean revolt spread and was led by royalists who threatened a march on Paris, and Lyons also fell into royalist hands. But the energy of Carnot, the chief organiser of the French armies, and the stupidity of their opponents, turned the tide. The British and Austrians quarrelled and were separately checked; the British siege of Dunkirk was broken up by a defeat at Hondschoote, and the raw French levies overcame the Austrians at Wattignies; on the other frontiers similar successes stopped the invading armies. The genius of Napoleon Bonaparte, an artillery officer, first showed itself in the recapture of Toulon from the British. By the end of the year Lyons was at the mercy of the Jacobins, and the Vendéans were crushed. The crowning victory of Fleurus in June, 1794, ensured the triumph of France and so helped to bring about the fall of the terrorists by making the Terror unnecessary.



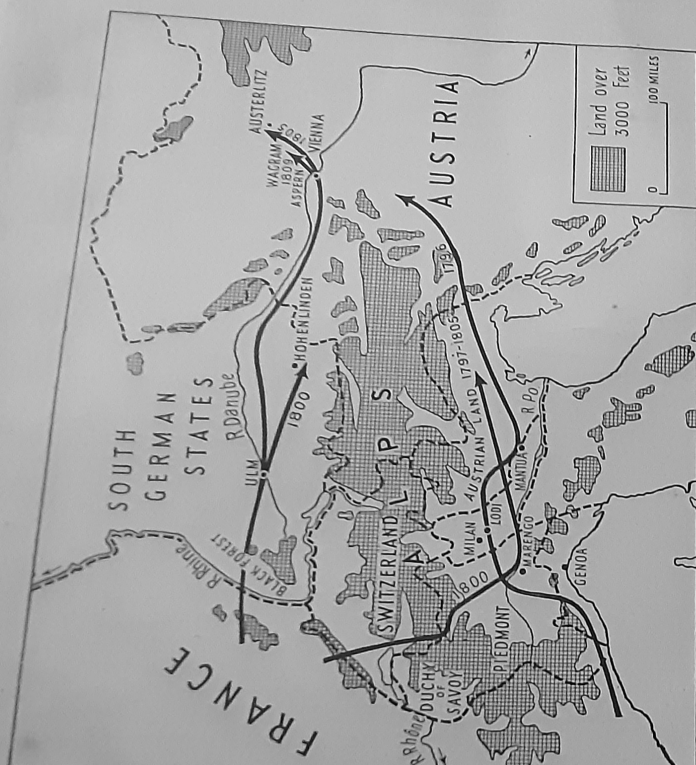
MAP 2.

MAP 2.—THE BRITISH CRISIS OF 1797 8

THE great coalition of enemies of France began to break up when the Revolutionary armies proved their superiority in 1794 and 1795. The chief members of this alliance were Austria, Prussia, Britain, Spain, and Holland. Holland was overrun by French armies in 1794, and a pro-French Batavian Republic was established. Prussia gave her main attention to Poland in the years 1793-5 (see pages 10-11), and with Spain made peace with France at Basel in 1795. In 1796 Spain became an ally of France, and Napoleon Bonaparte invaded Italy, forced Sardinia-Piedmont to make peace, and within a year subdued Austria. Britain, now alone in the war, found her navy outnumbered by those of France, Spain, and Holland, all combined against her. In Ireland southern Catholics and northern Nonconformists were ready to rise against the corrupt governing clique. The United Irishmen were rapidly arming and fomenting disturbances. In December, 1796, a French army under General Hoche set sail from Brest and reached Bantry Bay. Had it landed nothing could have saved British rule in Ireland; but a fog and a storm scattered the fleet, and gave the Government a breathing space. This was used to disarm the country and launch a reign of terror by means of Orangemen as ferocious as the rebels themselves.

Meanwhile events moved fast. In February, 1797, a small French force actually landed in South Wales; it was easily rounded up, but it gave a second warning of the risk of invasion. The great aim of the allies was to combine their fleets and strike a crushing blow at British naval superiority. The French and Spanish Mediterranean fleets came out first, but Admiral Jervis, aided by the genius of Nelson, defeated them at the battle of St. Vincent in February. In April, however, a mutiny occurred in the Channel fleet at Spithead; and when this was settled a much more violently revolutionary outbreak at the Nore paralysed the North Sea fleet which was on guard over the Dutch. Pure luck saved Britain; unfavourable winds kept the Dutch in harbour at the Texel until October. The mutiny was then over, and Admiral Duncan won a shattering victory over the Dutch fleet at Camperdown.

In 1798 the worst danger had passed. The rebellion of that year in Southern Ireland was a forlorn hope without French help, and was crushed at Vinegar Hill. Napoleon Bonaparte set off in May to attack Egypt and possibly India (see also pages 50-51), but the defeat of his fleet by Nelson in the Battle of the Nile in August rendered him powerless.



Map 3.

MAP 3.—NAPOLEON'S CAMPAIGNS AGAINST AUSTRIA

AUSTRIA was the most persistent of the continental enemies of France, and to attack her the French armies had to go round the Alpine mountain mass, either to the north by way of the Danube valley or to the south through the plain of Lombardy.

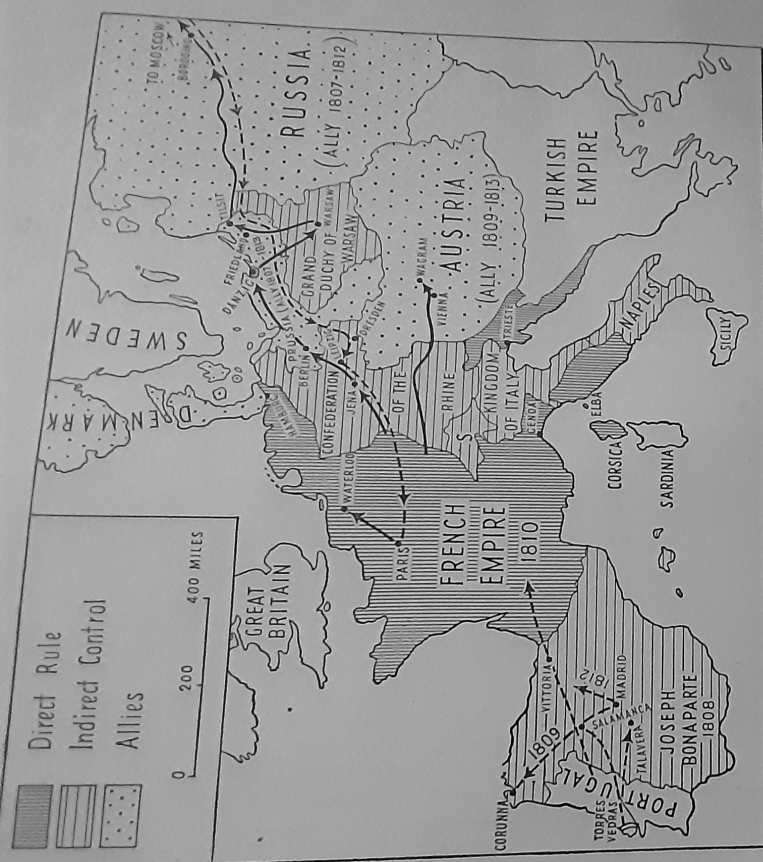
Napoleon Bonaparte became commander of the army of Italy in 1796. A campaign of a month in the Maritime Alps forced the King of Sardinia to make peace, and then followed the victory of the bridge of Lodi over the Austrians, the occupation of Milan, and the siege of Mantua. After defeating successive relieving armies at Castiglione, Arcola, and Rivoli, Napoleon took Mantua in February, 1797, and marched on Vienna. The Austrians sued for peace, which was signed at Campo Formio.

In 1799 Austria, allied this time with Russia as well as with Britain, declared war again, and with Napoleon absent in Egypt all Italy was won back from the French. In November Napoleon returned to France, seized power as First Consul, and detached Russia from the Alliance. In 1800, Moreau steadily advanced through the Black Forest and down the Danube, while the Austrians besieged and ultimately took Genoa. In May Napoleon suddenly crossed the Alps by the Great St. Bernard Pass, descended on the rear of the Austrians, and crushed them at Marengo, and the French triumph was completed by Moreau's victory at Hohenlinden in December. Once more the Austrians made peace, at Lunéville.

In 1805, when the Austrians and Russians took up the war again, Napoleon, now Emperor, defeated the Austrian army at Ulm, and seized Vienna by a hurried march down the right bank of the Danube. Then, turning north, he met and overwhelmed the main Austrian and Russian forces in the decisive battle of Austerlitz.

When the Austrians again declared war in 1809, Napoleon, by similar tactics, again seized Vienna, but this time he had to meet a roused and desperate Austria, and when his army tried to cross the Danube at Aspern it was hurled back. It was some weeks before the French could cross the river, and then they won a hard fought battle at Wagram which brought the war to an end.

For four years after this the Austrians were the unwilling allies of Napoleon, but they joined in the final coalition against him, and played a big part in the decisive battle of Leipzig and the campaign of 1814 in France.



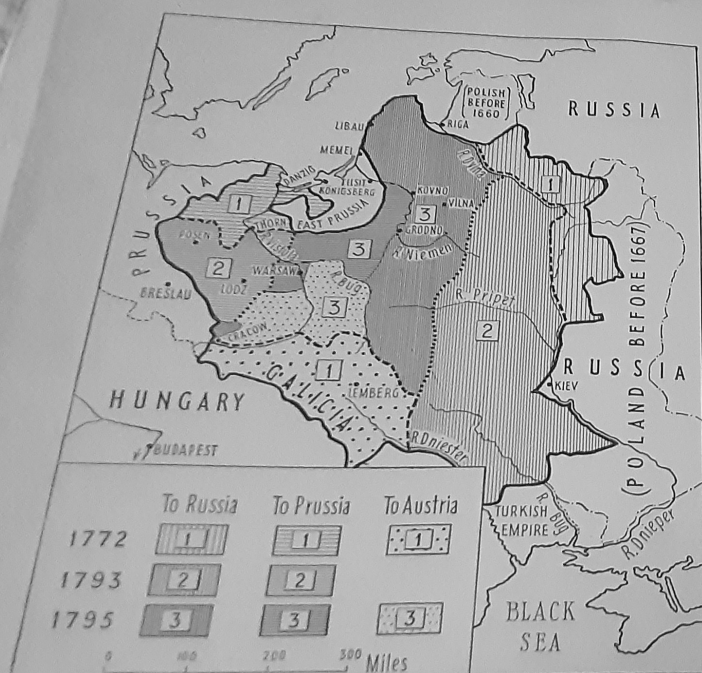
Map 4.

MAP 4.—NAPOLEON'S DOMINATION OF EUROPE, 1806-1814

AFTER the victory of Austerlitz in December, 1805, Napoleon dominated Central Europe. He forced Austria to become an allied power, and he organised Western Germany in a Confederation of the Rhine under his own control. Prussia protested too late, and was utterly defeated at Jena (Oct., 1806). Napoleon entered Berlin, and issued the Berlin decree, declaring Britain in a state of blockade and forbidding the importation of British goods into Europe—the Continental System by which he hoped to ruin Britain. He then seized Warsaw, was checked at Eylau, and won a victory at Friedland in June, 1807, which induced the Tsar to make peace at Tilsit, and even to enter into an alliance with Napoleon. Prussia lost territory and was also forced to become his ally.

Tilsit marked the height of Napoleon's power. He now organised Europe to make his Continental System effective. First he overran Portugal, the one country in Europe which was still allied to Britain. He made his brother-in-law, Louis in Holland, Jerome in Westphalia, a new German state; and Joseph in Naples and later in Spain. He extended the Confederation of the Rhine to include all the German states except Prussia and Austria. He formed a small Polish state, the Grand Duchy of Warsaw. Austria's desperate attack in 1808 was defeated in the Wagram campaign and she was forced into an alliance. In his efforts to regulate the trade of Europe Napoleon annexed Holland and north Germany as far as Hamburg, kept garrisons at Stettin and Danzig on the Baltic, and annexed Genoa, Tuscany, and Rome in Italy. By holding Trieste he controlled the main seaport of Austrian trade. He was himself King of the so-called Kingdom of Italy, whilst his brother-in-law, Murat, in 1808, was made King of Naples.

The first successful opposition to Napoleon came from Spain, where a revolution, which broke out in 1808, was never thoroughly suppressed. British troops landed in Portugal and exhausted the French in the long and expensive campaign of the Peninsular War (1808-1814), by which in the end Wellington conquered Spain. Russia broke away from her uneasy alliance with Napoleon in 1812, he suffered the disaster of the Moscow Campaign, and in the next year had to face Prussians, Swedes, and Austrians as well as Russians in Germany. After the defeat of Leipzig he was doomed, but it was not till April, 1814, that he abdicated and was sent to Elba. A year later he returned to fight the Waterloo campaign.



MAP 5.

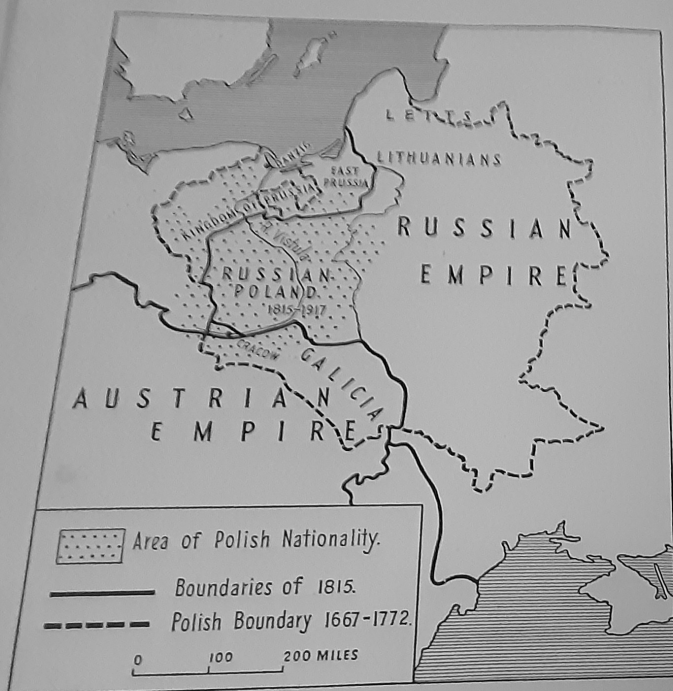
MAP 5.—THE PARTITIONS OF POLAND

THE treatment of the Kingdom of Poland by the rulers of Russia, Prussia, and Austria is one of the most startling examples in history of uncontrolled greed and oppression. In the seventeenth century Poland was a big Kingdom, almost of the first rank among European powers; but it had no natural boundaries except the Carpathians in the south-west, and it was artificial in another way, for only a third of its inhabitants were Poles (see map on page 12), the remainder being Lithuanians, Latvians, Ukrainians, and Russians. The weak government of kings who were elected by the nobles, and the turbulence of the nobles themselves, prepared the way for disaster.

In 1772, Frederick the Great of Prussia persuaded the Empress Catherine of Russia and Maria Theresa of Austria to join with him in invading Poland and seizing Polish land. For two centuries Prussia had been divided by a corridor of Polish territory, and now this fell to Frederick, except Danzig, the chief port of Poland at the mouth of the Vistula. Austria gained Galicia in the south, and Russia a strip of land in the east.

The Poles made a remarkable effort to recover from this blow, and set up a reformed constitution in 1788, making kingship hereditary and introducing parliamentary government. But Catherine of Russia had no intention of allowing Poland to recover and become a modern nation; she denounced the reformers as Jacobins and induced the Prussians to help her in suppressing them. Then the second partition was made. Austria, deeply engaged in war with the other victorious Jacobins of France, was ignored, while Prussia gained Danzig and the ancient Polish land of Posen, and Russia annexed a very large area in the east.

If the Poles had been an advanced nation like the French they would probably have been able to resist this aggression. As it was, the serfs who made up the bulk of the population were very little interested in who their masters were. Kosciuszko, the reforming leader, returned from Paris in 1794 and stirred up a rebellion in Prussian Poland. His campaign was brilliantly conducted, and he seized Warsaw; but the whole Russian army attacked the rebels and conquered them, and the remainder of Poland was divided between the three grasping rulers. It is worth noting that the truly Polish land had all been divided between Prussia and Austria, whilst Russia's share of the three partitions was territory inhabited by Lithuanian, Latvian, and Russian peoples.



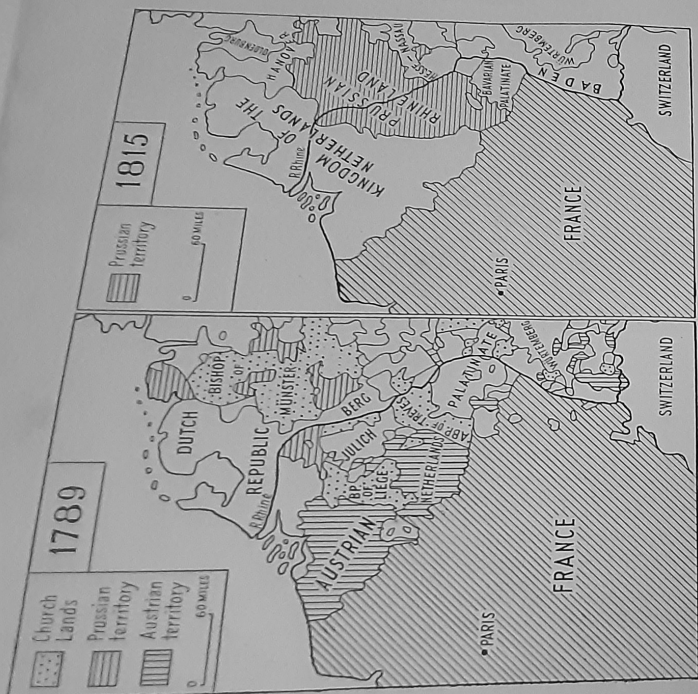
MAP 6.

MAP 6. POLAND IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

THE Congress of Vienna, summoned in 1814 to settle the problems created by Napoleon's downfall, found the Polish problem one of the most difficult of the many it had to deal with, and at one time Prussia and Russia were on the point of war with Austria, Britain, and France over this very question. However, a solution was found which satisfied every one except the Poles, and they were not consulted. Napoleon's Grand Duchy of Warsaw (see pages 8-9) was abolished, and most of the territory included in it—the truly Polish land—became a Kingdom of Poland with the Russian Tsar as King. Although the Poles are essentially the people of the Vistula, the mouth of the river and the chief outlet of Poland at Danzig remained Prussian, and Prussia also received once more the province of Posen. The only portion of Poland which remained free was the former capital, Cracow, and its immediate surroundings, and this little free state was annexed by Austria in 1846, following a Polish revolt in her Galician territory. Apart from this one small change the boundaries remained the same until the war of 1914.

The Tsar, Alexander I., undertook to give Poland a completely separate government from Russia, and to safeguard its freedom by a constitution. This he tried to fulfil, but the Poles resented Russian rule, and this and their inexperience in government made the constitution almost unworkable. Alexander's successor, Nicholas I., had no sympathy with constitutions of any kind, and feeling against Russian rule rose higher and higher. The French Revolution of July, 1830, gave the signal for a Polish outbreak in November. A terrible civil war, in which cholera caused more havoc than armaments, ended in the crushing of the revolt, and Nicholas, with grim satisfaction, made Poland a Russian province. The Poles had failed because of bitter class differences among themselves, and because they relied unduly on the help of France and Britain.

In 1863, a second Polish revolt broke out against Alexander II., the son of Nicholas, who had shown some sympathy with reform by freeing the Russian serfs, but had refused to extend this reform to Poland. This time the Poles were more united, but their long suppression had weakened them greatly, and again no help was forthcoming from their Liberal sympathisers in Western Europe, while Bismarck gave the Tsar the active support of Prussia in quelling the revolt. A most barbarous struggle ended in the inevitable defeat of the rebels, and the Poles were in no position to claim their freedom again until the German conquest of 1915.



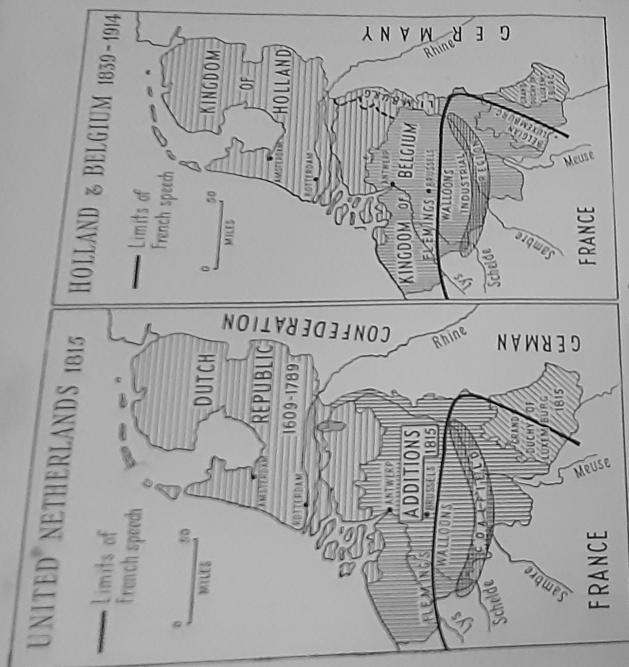
Map 7.

MAP 7.—BARRIERS AGAINST FRANCE, 1815

THE overwhelming superiority of France over the other states of the Continent in the Revolutionary War (1792-1802) was due in part to the fact that France was a national unit. The Revolution swept away the last internal barriers, relics of the Middle Ages, and gave a sense of nationality to every Frenchman. On the borders of France the Holy Roman Empire, the least unified state in Europe, could make no effective opposition to the advance of the French. The map, with its mosaic of territories, shows clearly the hopeless weakness and inefficiency of the Empire. Austria and Prussia were the two strong powers in the Empire. It was Austria's particular task to guard the Rhine boundary, but her possessions in the Netherlands were so far from the main Austrian lands that they were impossible to defend, and further south Bavarian rivalry weakened Austria's resistance. The French found the road to Germany easy of access, and again and again they crossed the Rhine, in 1796, 1800, 1805, 1806, 1809, and 1812.

After their victory over Napoleon, one of the main concerns of the allies was to safeguard Europe against French nationalism and French democracy. They could not weaken France, for that would create a mood of despair which would greatly increase the dangers they feared. Therefore they strengthened the barriers against France; they united the Austrian Netherlands (willingly abandoned by Austria) with the Dutch Republic, to form a united Kingdom of the Netherlands under the Dutch House of Orange; they accepted throughout Germany Napoleon's great territorial reforms, the abolition of hundreds of petty sovereignties, including all those ruled by the Church. Prussia, as one of the chief victors, was allowed to extend and enlarge her West German provinces into a solid Rhine province, and took up the task abandoned by Austria, of guarding the Rhine frontier against France. In the south of Germany the states of Baden, Württemberg, and Bavaria, much enlarged by Napoleon, were allowed to retain their gains. On the Italian frontier (see pages 30-31) the Kingdom of Sardinia-Piedmont was restored, and greatly strengthened by the addition of Genoa.

These measures all proved to be only temporary, for the Kingdom of the Netherlands broke up, Prussia unified Germany under her power, and Sardinia-Piedmont unified Italy. They were important, however, in so far as they aided the final solution, the creation of strong German and Italian national states, and the emergence of an independent Belgium.



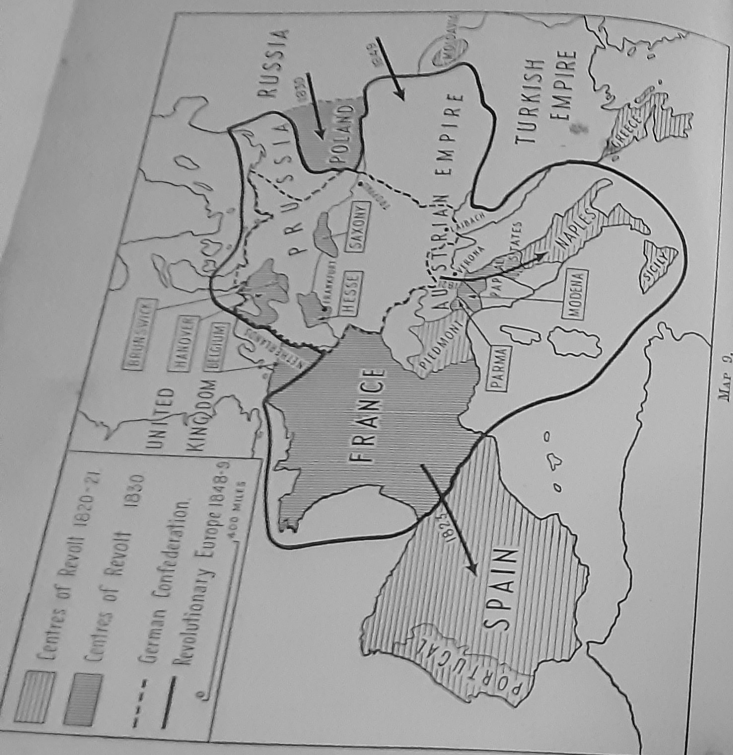
MAP 8.

MAP 8.—THE PROBLEM OF THE NETHERLANDS

THE Kingdom of the Netherlands, under King William I. of the House of Orange, was established in 1815 to be a bulwark against France. It was a British project, and appeared at the time to be a sensible solution of the problem; but the union of the Netherlands lasted only fifteen years, and to understand its failure it is necessary to know something of the earlier history of both parts.

The Netherlands contain a mixture of races, Dutch and Flemings in the north and west, speaking Low German dialects, and Walloons, Celtic French-speaking people, in the south-east. In the Middle Ages the territory consisted of seventeen provinces, a no-man's-land between France and Germany, which after many vicissitudes fell into the possession of the Spanish Hapsburgs in the sixteenth century. Religious persecution and excessive taxation provoked a revolt, and the seven northernmost provinces, which were mainly Protestant, won their freedom and formed the small but enormously important Dutch Republic (Holland). The southern provinces, mainly Catholic, remained subject to Spain, and later to Austria, until the French revolutionary occupation. Hence the Dutch had proud memories of hard-won independence and national greatness, and despised the subject people of the south. Enlightenment in the southern provinces had come mainly from Revolutionary France, and here Liberals and Catholics, disputing bitterly among themselves, alike hated the commercial narrow-mindedness of the Dutch, and the intolerance of the Dutch Protestant rule which William I. forced upon them.

In August, 1830, the southern provinces caught the spirit of revolution from France, and overthrew Dutch rule. They set up the Kingdom of Belgium, and secured the support of France and Britain to prevent interference from Europe. A long and complicated crisis followed, the chief difficulties being (i) the ambition of France to annex all or part of Belgium, frustrated by British opposition; (ii) the dubious position of Luxembourg and Limburg, to which both Holland and Belgium laid strong claim; (iii) the obstinacy of William I., who abdicated when forced to come to terms in 1839. Luxembourg was eventually partitioned, the western half going to Belgium, the eastern forming a Grand Duchy under the Dutch King until in 1890 it was separated from Holland by the Salic Law of inheritance; Limburg was given to Holland. In 1839, when the final treaty was signed, Belgium was neutralised under the guarantee of the great powers. The attempt to unite the Flemings and Walloons in one kingdom was remarkably successful, and Belgium became a flourishing industrial state.



MAP 9.—REVOLUTIONS IN EUROPE, 1820-1849

THE peacemakers of 1815 instituted the Concert of Europe, by which the five great powers, Austria, Russia, Prussia, France, and Britain agreed to work together to keep peace and preserve the Balance of Power. Under Metternich's guidance this became an alliance, in which Britain refused to participate, to prevent the spread of democratic and nationalist ideas. In their own states the chief rulers suppressed reformers and stifled free speech, and they intervened to destroy democratic movements in the lesser states.

This policy preserved international peace in Europe until 1854, but it was futile to attempt to stop the growth of democracy and nationalism. Liberal revolts broke out in the Mediterranean lands in 1820-1. In Spain and Naples the kings were forced to grant constitutions, but congresses of the powers at Troppau, Laibach, and Verona decreed the restoration of absolute rule, and this was accomplished by an Austrian army in Naples and a French army in Spain. An attempt at a revolution in Piedmont was also suppressed by the Austrians. In Portugal, with British support, the Liberals were more successful, and in Greece. Russian sympathy prevented any action by the Concert (see page 37).

In July, 1830, a revolution in France against the autocratic rule of Charles X. placed Louis Philippe, the Citizen King, on the throne, and this outbreak at the headquarters of revolution caused a wave of rebellion. The Belgians freed themselves from Dutch rule (see pages 16-17); the Poles attempted a national rising against Russia (see pages 12-13); Liberals in Parma, Modena, and the Papal States rebelled, only to be suppressed once more by Austrian troops; and even in Germany, under the eye of Metternich himself, there were successful lesser risings in Hesse, Hanover, Brunswick, and Saxony.

The next outbreaks, in the Year of Revolutions, 1848, were on a far larger scale. Louis Philippe went the way of the Bourbons, and France became a republic with Prince Louis Napoleon Bonaparte as President; Metternich himself fell from power, and all Austria and Germany were in ferment (see pages 27-29); Italians under the leadership of Charles Albert of Sardinia-Piedmont tried to free themselves from Austrian control; and everywhere constitutions were obtained. Then came the reaction; the German National Parliament at Frankfurt broke up in disorder; the Austrian risings collapsed, and the Hungarians, the last to give in, were conquered by a Russian army; Charles Albert was defeated in Italy, and Austrian power was restored. Except in France the revolutions failed, but they fatally weakened the system they attacked.



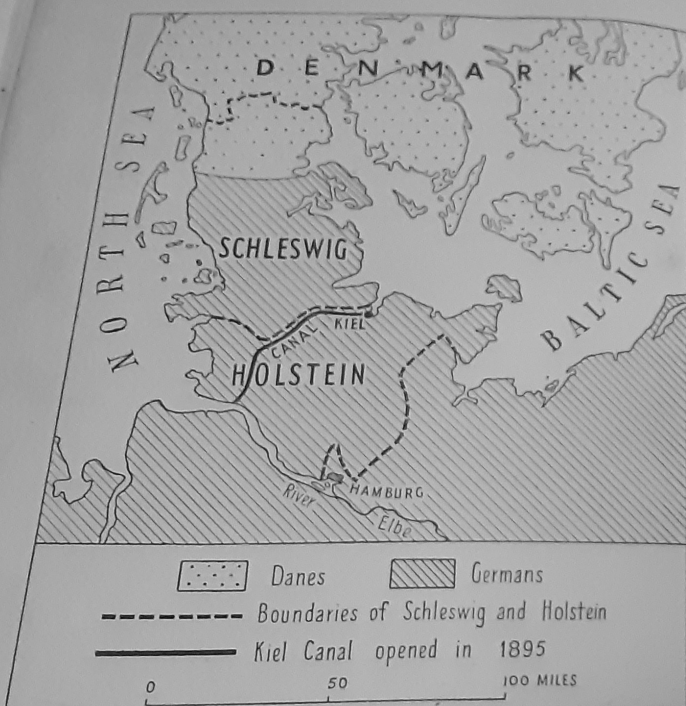
MAP 10.—PRUSSIA'S DOMINATION OF GERMANY

FREDERICK the Great, who had made Prussia one of the great powers of Europe, died in 1786. He had annexed Silesia and the "Polish Corridor," except Danzig (see page 10). During the Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars Prussia gained a large mass of Polish territory and some land in Western Germany, only to lose much more as a consequence of the defeat of Jena.

In the Vienna Settlement Prussia was richly rewarded in territory, and yet remained a dissatisfied power. The enormous extension and consolidation of her possessions in Western Germany into the large provinces of Rhenish Prussia and Westphalia was of inestimable value in the long run, for these provinces contained some of the oldest German lands, and their potential importance in trade and industry was enormous. At the moment, however, the Prussians found these new lands very difficult to assimilate, with their Catholic population and very different traditions from Prussia, and they were aggrieved that a corridor of non-Prussian territory was interposed between the old and the new provinces. The gains of Swedish Pomerania, Danzig and Thorn, and North Saxony were gratifying, but Prussians had expected all Saxony, and were dissatisfied on this score as well. Another grievance was that in the German Confederation Prussia was definitely placed second to Austria.

The Prussian Kings Frederick William III. (1797-1840) and Frederick William IV. (1840-61) both had strong feelings of loyalty to the Hapsburg Austrian Emperors which prevented an open Prussian attack on Austria's leadership in Germany. Only for a time during the revolutionary period of 1848-50 did Prussia make a challenge, and that ended in humiliation. Meanwhile Prussia had quietly been getting into her own hands the leadership of German trade. Her scattered lands controlled all the main German rivers, and her possession of manufacturing districts confirmed her trade supremacy. Finding the customs barriers of the petty German states an intolerable nuisance, the Prussians organized a Customs Union (the Zollverein), which was the true forerunner of the German Empire. The Zollverein was begun in 1819, and by 1852 nearly every German state, with the exception of Austria, was a member; Austria, refused admission, and with her natural trade-routes leading elsewhere, found herself shut out from the economic union of Germany.

Under William I. (1861-88) and Bismarck his Minister-President, Prussia's military challenge led to the wars of 1864 (against Denmark), 1866 (against Austria), and 1870 (against France), by which the German Empire was created.



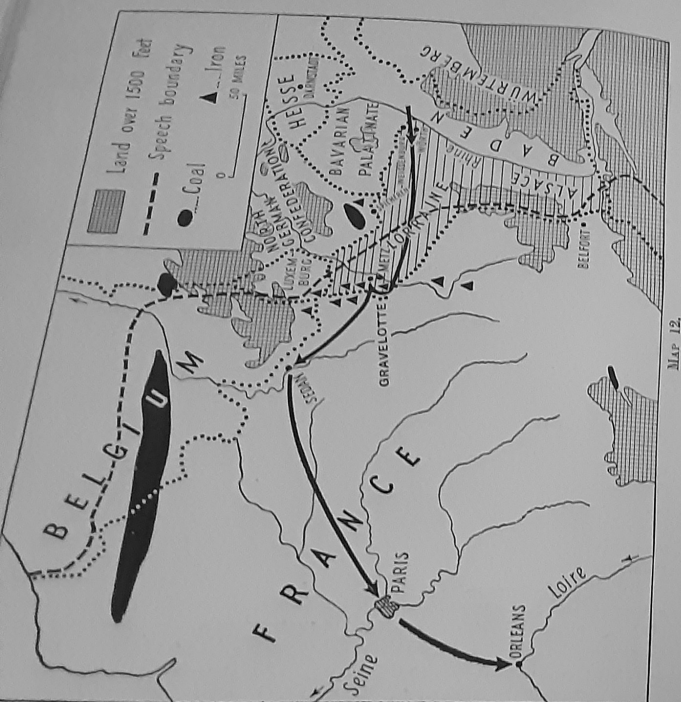
MAP 11.

MAP 11. SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN

THE ownership of these duchies, or part of them, has been a European problem in 1848, 1864, and 1913. The King of Denmark had ruled them as fiefs since the fifteenth century, although Holstein was in the Holy Roman Empire and after 1815 in the German Confederation. The first crisis arose when it became obvious that the male line of the House of Denmark was coming to an end, and that the Salic Law of inheritance, operating in the duchies but not in Denmark, would bring about a separation. In 1848 the Danish King made a move to unite Schleswig permanently with Denmark, and this led to a quarrel with the German Confederation which was still unsettled when the revolution of 1848 broke out. German nationalists in Schleswig-Holstein appealed to the German National Parliament at Frankfurt, and Prussia, on behalf of the Parliament, attempted to install the Duke of Augustenburg, the German claimant under the Salic Law, as ruler. But the European powers intervened, and forced Prussia to agree to a settlement by which the Salic Law should not operate, on condition that the duchies should be governed separately from Denmark.

The next crisis occurred in 1863, when Christian IX, inheriting under the European agreement, became King of Denmark. He at once issued a new constitution forcibly combining Schleswig with Denmark. This was a breach of the European agreement, and consequently the Duke of Augustenburg revived his claim to the duchies, and the German Confederation took up his cause. Bismarck did not want this solution, however, and on his initiative Austria and Prussia took the affair into their own hands, made war on Denmark in 1864, and seized the duchies. As a temporary arrangement, Prussia administered Schleswig, and Austria Holstein. Bismarck's refusal to install Augustenburg as ruler, and his obvious intention to annex Schleswig to Prussia, led to the Austro-Prussian War of 1866, after which Prussia annexed both duchies. The main motive for Prussia's desire to own Schleswig became clear when the Kiel Canal was proposed; it was opened in 1895, and enormously benefited German trade and naval strength.

The Great Powers had been unable to agree on intervention to prevent Denmark's loss of Schleswig-Holstein in 1864, when the obstinacy of the Danish Government had made its cause difficult to defend. But after the Great War it was decided that the wrong done in 1864 should be rectified, a plebiscite was held in Schleswig and the Danish part was handed over to Denmark.



MAP 12.—THE FRANCO-GERMAN WAR OF 1870

THE Emperor Napoleon III. entirely miscalculated the outcome of the Austro-Prussian War of 1866. He thought that it would be a long and exhausting struggle from which he, as a neutral mediator, might make profit. The speedy result, and the complete domination of Prussia in Germany, alarmed and annoyed France, and to cover up his failure Napoleon demanded Luxembourg or some South German territory as the price of his neutrality and his consent to the formation of the North German Confederation. Bismarck refused any concession, and used Napoleon's demands to frighten the South German states into a military alliance. Germany (except Austria) was now an economic and military unit, and Bismarck desired war to cement the unity. The French also wanted war, and the excuse found was the candidature of Leopold, a Hohenzollern relative of King William I. of Prussia, for the throne of Spain.

The French expected the alliance of Italy and Austria, and Europe looked for an invasion of Germany; but the military organisation of France was inefficient, while the German plans, formulated by Von Moltke, were so precise that the German armies moved like clockwork. German victories at Weissenburg, Wörth, and Spicheren forced the French back to Metz, and prevented Austria and Italy from going to the help of France. Then a great French army was surrounded at Metz after a series of defeats, and the failure of the last stand of the main French forces, at Sedan, led to the surrender of Napoleon himself and the end of his empire, within a month of the first German advance.

The later resistance of France, now a republic, was heroic but hopeless. Metz surrendered, and all Northern France was overrun by German armies. Paris, surrounded by German troops, held out for four months, until provisions ran short, and then surrendered. The main German armies reached the Loire at Orléans, where they overcame the new armies raised by Gambetta, the temporary dictator of the republic. France gave in, and peace was signed at Frankfurt in May, 1871.

By the treaty of peace France surrendered Alsace, with its flourishing industries, and Lorraine, with its deposits of iron ore, to the German Empire. (The key fortress of Belfort was retained.) These provinces had always been claimed by the Germans, on the ground that the population was mainly German and that they had been wrongfully seized from the Holy Roman Empire. Time was to show that the inhabitants were French by choice, if not by race, and the new Germany failed entirely to assimilate them.



MAP 13.—THE GERMAN EMPIRE

THE chief difficulties in the way of the unification of the German people were (i) the strength of the particular states and their rulers, and (ii) the complication caused by the existence of the Austrian Empire, with its predominantly non-German population ruled by the German Austrians (see page 28). The boundary of the German Confederation of 1815 corresponded fairly well to the racial limits; it included unwilling Czechs and Slovenes, and excluded the Germans of East Prussia and Schleswig. The other German stocks outside the Confederation, Dutch, Flemings, Alsatians, German Lorrainers, and German Swiss, had no wish to belong to Germany. But the Confederation was necessarily weak, and intentionally kept so by Metternich. Nationalists demanded a more genuine unity.

In 1848 widespread revolutions made an attempt at unification possible, but the Frankfurt Parliament, which met to draw up the plans, found the obstacles insuperable. Voluntary unity was apparently impossible, with so many conflicting interests. This deadlock was ended by Bismarck, who became Minister-President to William I. of Prussia in 1862. His first important step, the Danish War of 1864 in alliance with Austria, was ambiguous, but he used the resulting situation to quarrel with Austria about the conquered duchies of Schleswig and Holstein (see page 23). In 1866 Prussia, in alliance with Italy, made war on Austria and as many of the lesser German states as cared to take up Bismarck's challenge to the existing Confederation. The Prussians concluded a very rapid campaign by the decisive victory of Sadowa. Austria was excluded from Germany, and Prussia annexed Schleswig-Holstein, Hanover, and Hesse-Nassau (see page 19), and organised the North German Confederation. The South German states found themselves independent, but fear of France soon drove them into alliance with the North German Confederation.

French fear of German unification and Napoleon III.'s wish to save his face by the annexation of Luxemburg or some other German territory, played into the hands of Bismarck, who believed that only in war could German unity be completed. The South German states joined the North Germans in the war against France in 1870, and in January 1871 the German Empire, with the Prussian King its Emperor, was proclaimed at Versailles; it took the form of a federation, but a strongly united one dominated by Prussia. Its strength was very great, for it had the largest population of any western European state, and its industrial resources, developed rapidly after 1871, were enormous.



MAP 14.

MAP 14.—AUSTRIA, 1815-1914

AT the Vienna Congress of 1815 Austria, under Metternich's leadership, seemed to be the central and dominant power in Europe, but her imposing appearance of power hid internal weaknesses which brought about the dissolution of her empire. To Metternich revolutionary nationalism was the great enemy, for the Austrian Empire, although an economic unit centring on the River Danube, contained fragments of at least eight nationalities. To delay their inevitable development Metternich's policy was the suppression of new ideas and censorship of books and the press. In 1848 Liberalism reached Vienna, a revolution broke out, and Metternich fell from power. At once the Austrian Empire began to break up. The Lombards and Venetians proclaimed their freedom, and all Italy came to their rescue; the Hungarians demanded and obtained autonomy; the Czechs and South Slavs claimed national recognition. The Empire was saved by the jealousies of these nationalities. The Germans would not admit the claim of the Czechs, and the Magyars of Hungary denied that the South Slavs and Roumanians had any right to a separate existence outside Hungary; Poles and Ukrainians had already come to blows in Galicia in 1846. The Emperor recovered his power and crushed the Italian movement, while the Tsar suppressed the Hungarians for him. The Empire was in some ways modernised, but it was not fundamentally altered.

In the period 1849-67 Austria, a state which could not endure change, found herself faced with upheaval on every hand, and, with interests in the Balkans, Italy, and Germany, the three chief centres of unrest, she was concerned in every crisis and only just survived. Her neutrality in the Crimean War isolated her in Europe (see page 35). In 1859 the French and Piedmontese attacked Austria's Italian provinces, and Lombardy was lost. In 1866 Bismarck picked a quarrel to drive Austria out of the German Confederation, and succeeded; she also lost Venetia to his Italian allies.

Threatened with extinction, the Austrian Government saved itself by a Compromise with the Magyars in 1867, by which Hungary became an equal partner in the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Henceforward Magyars took the lead in the dual monarchy, and, to carry through their ambitious Balkan and anti-Slavonic policy they made an alliance with the German Empire in 1879. Bosnia had been occupied in 1878, and was annexed in 1908. This policy of domination in the Balkans led to the clash with the growing state of Serbia which resulted in the outbreak of the 1914-18 War and the break-up of the Austro-Hungarian Empire.



MAP 15.

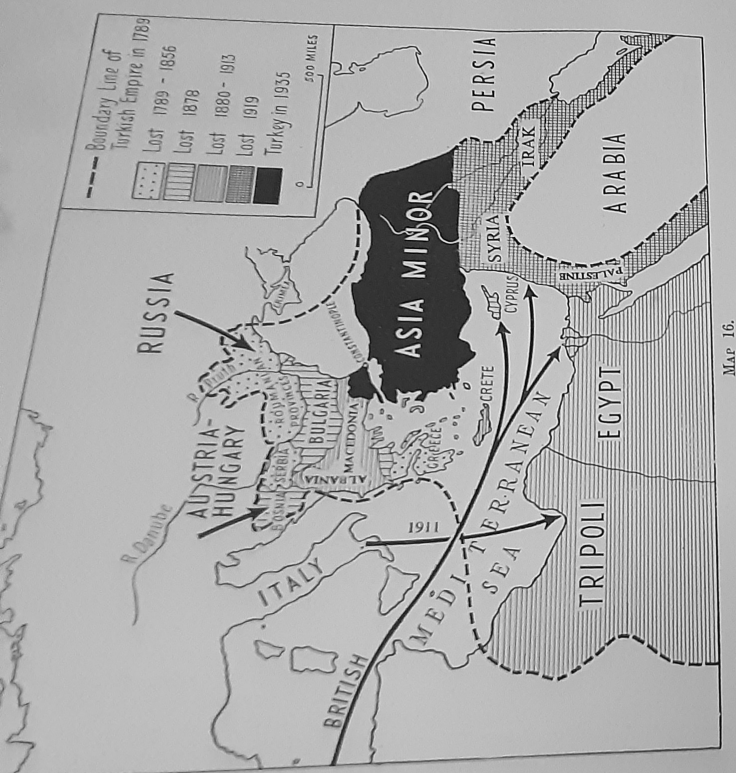
MAP 15.—THE UNIFICATION OF ITALY

FROM the days of the Roman Empire Italy had been split up into a number of states, dominated since 1738 by Austria. At the Vienna Settlement (1815) Italian nationalist feeling, awakened by Napoleon's reforms but not yet very strong, was ignored. "Italy," said Metternich, "is only a geographical expression." The old rule was everywhere restored, except in the republics of Genoa and Venice, which were added to Sardinia-Piedmont and Austria respectively. Austrian military power, with the help of Hapsburg rulers in Modena and Tuscany, suppressed every popular rising until the revolutions in Austria in 1848 gave the Italians their first great opportunity. By that time there were three parties of nationalists in Italy: (i) the pure republicans, led by the great national prophet Mazzini; (ii) the papalists, who wished the "Liberal" Pope, Pius IX., to be head of an Italian Confederation; (iii) the monarchists, who supported the claims of Charles Albert, King of Sardinia-Piedmont.

In 1848 risings in Lombardy and Venice were supported by a Piedmontese invasion. All Italy joined in, but internal dissensions and the defeat of Charles Albert at Custoza destroyed the hopes of the nationalists. Mazzini's party set up a Roman Republic but were subdued by French and Austrian troops, and Charles Albert abdicated after a second defeat at Novara.

Sardinia-Piedmont now became the focus of the movement. Under an enlightened ruler, Victor Emmanuel II., the great minister Cavour prepared for the next struggle. He modernised Piedmont, entered the Crimean War to win the gratitude of France, and at Plombières in 1858 came to terms with Napoleon III., who was willing to drive out Austria but not to unite Italy. There followed the war of 1859, when the French and Sardinians won the battles of Magenta and Solferino, and Napoleon III., alarmed by his own success and by other European dangers, signed a truce at Villafranca which left Venetia under Austrian rule. The national movement was now irresistible, and Napoleon III. was forced to acquiesce in the annexation of Lombardy, Parma, Modena, Tuscany, and the Romagna by the Sardinian King. In 1860 Garibaldi sailed to Sicily with his Thousand and overthrew the Kingdom of Naples in a brilliant campaign. While the Neapolitans made their last stand, Cavour was able to send the Piedmontese forces southward to complete and control the Garibaldian triumph. The Kingdom of Italy was proclaimed in 1861. In 1866, in the Austro-Prussian War, Italy as Prussia's ally obtained Venetia, and in 1870, when the French garrison had to be withdrawn, Rome and the Patrimony of St. Peter were annexed.

Trieste, and Salomita was added to it after the first world war in 1919



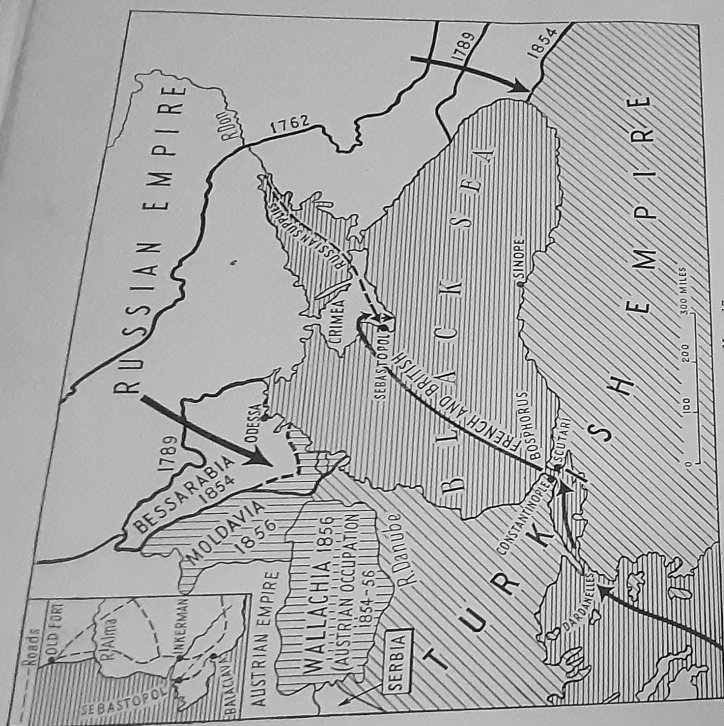
MAP 16.—THE DECAY OF THE TURKISH EMPIRE

DECAYING empires create very serious problems in international affairs, for they stimulate the ambitions and rivalries of other states and form centres of perpetual unrest. This was the condition of Turkey-in-Europe in the nineteenth century. In Northern Africa the Turkish hold was already weak in 1789, and by 1914 it had disappeared. In Asia the Turks held their own until the Great War shattered their empire. But in Europe Turkey was the "sick man," as Tsar Nicholas I. said, wishing to hasten his death and divide his estate.

Throughout the nineteenth century Russia was the most persistent enemy of Turkey, for two reasons: (i) the Balkan Christians, like the Russians, belonged to the Greek Orthodox Church, and Russia claimed the right to protect all members of this church under Mohammedan rule; (ii) from the time of Catherine the Great Russia's ambition was to open a way through Constantinople and the Straits to the Mediterranean Sea. The misgoverned and corrupt Turkish Empire could not resist Russian attacks; in 1808-12 and again in 1828-9 Russia defeated Turkey and gained territory and influence; meanwhile Serbia and Greece became free countries.

Britain was the main upholder of Turkish power because Russia's advance threatened her Mediterranean sea-power and the control of India (see pages 44-5). Palmerston and Disraeli in particular followed a strongly pro-Turk policy. This led to the Crimean War in 1854, when Turkey was saved by French and British armies, only to lose her Roumanian provinces at the peace. Still the Turks did not reform, and the Russians spread the doctrine of pan-Slavism (the union of all Slav peoples) in the Balkans. Serious revolts in Bosnia and Bulgaria led to the Russo-Turkish War of 1877-8 and the Congress of Berlin, where the great powers attempted a compromise. Austria gained control of Bosnia, Britain took Cyprus, Serbia and Greece were enlarged, and part of Bulgaria made free and the rest half-free. Turkey-in-Europe, diminished, still existed until the Balkan States in 1912 seized all but a small area round Constantinople.

Meanwhile a nationalist party known as the Young Turks seized power in 1908, and aimed at the westernisation of Turkey. Germany, for her own reasons, aided the Turks (see pages 62-3). The disasters of the Italian War of 1911, the Balkan War of 1912, and the War of 1914-18, by reducing Turkey to its national limits (the core of purely Turkish land in Asia Minor), provoked a revival: under the leadership of Mustapha Kemal the Turks first recovered lands lost to Greece and then began to transform their country into a modern state.



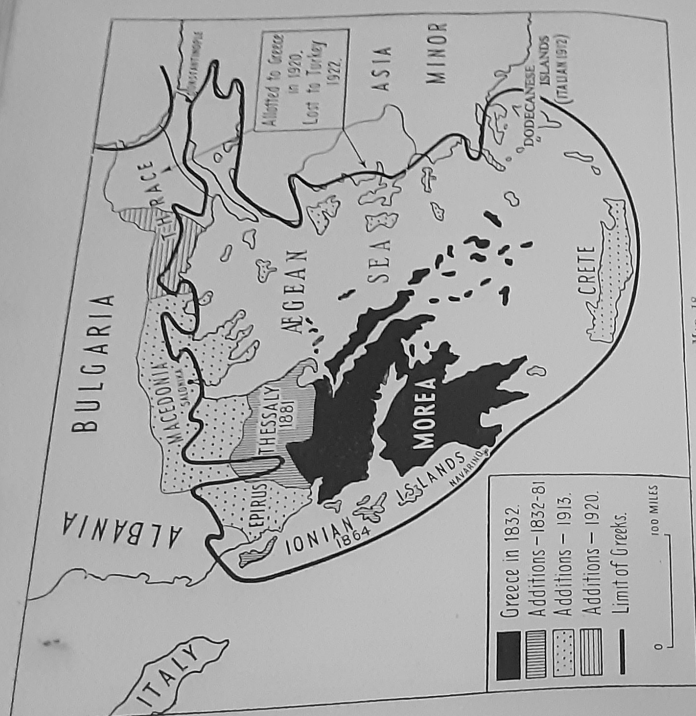
Map 17.

MAP 17.—TURKEY AND THE CRIMEAN WAR

THE Crimean War (1854-6) was fought by Britain and France in alliance with the Turks to prevent Russia from dominating Turkey and to stave off the collapse of Turkish power. Russia's advance since the days when the Black Sea was a Turkish lake had been steady and persistent, and Palmerston at any rate thought that only a war would prevent it from continuing. The alternative which he did not see was the possibility that Roumanians, Bulgarians, and Serbs, given complete freedom, might be a greater obstacle to Russian advance than a corrupt empire rightly hated by its subjects. Lord Salisbury said at a later time that "we put our money on the wrong horse."

A trifling dispute between the Tsar Nicholas I. and Napoleon III. of France over the rights of the Latin monks at Jerusalem caused the crisis. The Tsar made wide claims, said to be based on treaties, amounting to a protectorate over all the Greek Orthodox Christians in Turkey. While Europe tried to settle the crisis by diplomacy, Russian troops occupied Moldavia and Wallachia (June 1853). Attempts at a settlement broke down, the Russians destroyed the Turkish Black Sea fleet at Sinope, and Turkey declared war. The Russian army was checked and retreated, and Austrian troops occupied Moldavia and Wallachia, but France and Britain resolved to declare war and put a decisive stop to Russia's advance by destroying her naval base at Sebastopol. It was a campaign full of mistakes and mismanagement on both sides, but in the end, after Sardinia-Piedmont had joined the allies, Sebastopol fell.

The Peace of Paris in 1856 admitted Turkey to the Public Law of Europe; henceforth her complete sovereignty over her subjects was admitted. But the Sultan undertook to carry out definite reforms (which, in spite of the hopefulness of the British ambassador, Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, he did not do), and he had to recognise the virtual independence of Moldavia and Wallachia, on which Napoleon III. insisted. Russia was forced to agree to the neutralisation of the Black Sea, but fourteen years later she denounced this part of the treaty. Most of the effects of the war were unintended ones: Russia's advance in Asia, to which her thwarted energies were now turned (see pages 44-5); Austria's isolation and weakness, owing to her policy of neutrality; Sardinia-Piedmont's successful bid for Napoleon III.'s gratitude and support against Austria (pages 30-1); the creation of the Roumanian state (pages 42-3). As none of these results were intended by the chief authors of the war, we may take it as a classic example of futility and waste.

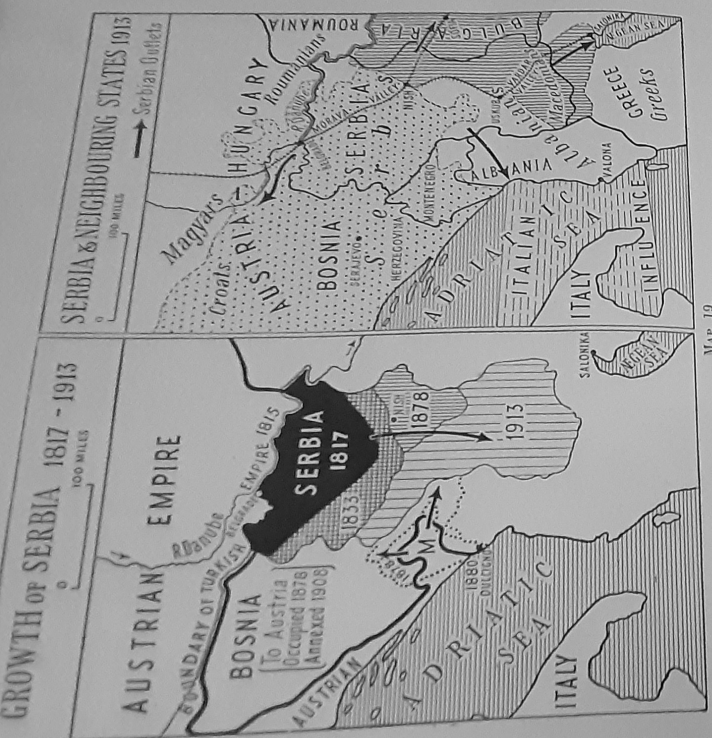


MAP 18.—THE GROWTH OF GREECE

THE Greeks have a name to conjure with in European History. The ancient Greeks founded European civilisation; and the Eastern Roman Empire, with its capital at Constantinople for a thousand years, was really a Greek Empire. The modern Greeks are mainly descended from Slav invaders, but they inherit from ancient Greece their language, their position as the people of the shores and islands of the Aegean Sea, and their control of the trade of the Near East.

Modern Greek nationalism began with a literary and classical revival among the merchant Greeks, leading to a secret nationalist movement against Turkish rule. Russians sympathised and helped because they belonged to the same Orthodox Church. In 1821 Greek exiles invaded Moldavia from Russia, but failed to stir up the Roumanian peasantry against the Turks. Immediately, however, a serious revolt broke out in the Morea, assisted by volunteers from Western Europe such as the poet Byron. In a ferocious struggle the Greeks were victorious until a French-trained Egyptian fleet and army appeared (see page 51). Then they were all but defeated, and were saved only by a fleet of British, French, and Russian ships, which destroyed the Egyptian navy at Navarino in 1827. In the next year the Russians invaded Turkey, and their victories secured the independence of Greece.

Thus a small Greek Kingdom was established in 1832 and laid claim to all the unredeemed Greek land. Britain handed over the Ionian Islands in 1864. After the Russo-Turkish War of 1877-8 the Congress of Berlin allotted Thessaly to the Greeks. In 1897 the Greeks went to war with Turkey, but were heavily defeated, although Crete succeeded in winning semi-independence under Turkish overlordship. Subsequently the Greeks, under the guidance of Venizelos, built up an alliance with Serbia and Bulgaria, and in 1912 they joined in a victorious attack on Turkey-in-Europe. The victors fell out over Macedonia. Greece and Serbia, joined by Roumania, attacked and defeated Bulgaria in the Second Balkan War of 1913, and Greece gained Epirus and Southern Macedonia. Almost immediately the War of 1914 followed, and the Greeks ultimately became rather unwilling allies of Britain and France. Their reward was a grant of territory stretching to the Black Sea and the walls of Constantinople, and a foothold in Asia Minor; but a revived Turkey under Mustapha Kemal fought and defeated Greece in 1921-2, and their final gains from the War of 1914-18 were much less. Since then a great interchange of population between Greece and Turkey has almost removed the Greeks from the coast of Asia Minor.

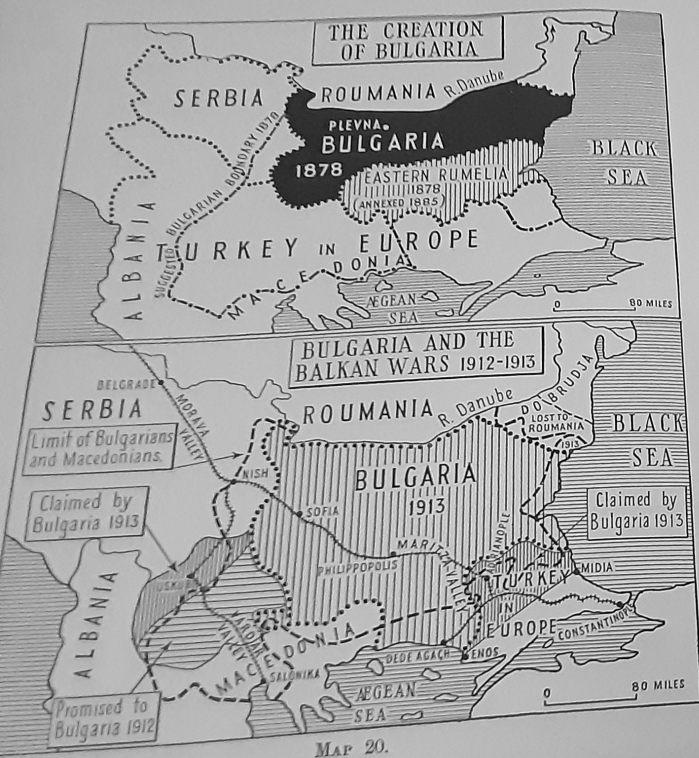


MAP 19.—THE GROWTH OF SERBIA

THE Serbs are a branch of the South Slav races, who are separated from the main Slav stocks by the Germans, Magyars, and Rumanians of the Danube basin. Except for the independent mountaineers of Montenegro, all the Serbs were conquered by the Turks. At one time Austria seemed likely to reconquer all the Serbian lands, but this process was checked in 1738, and the Serbs south of the Danube and Save remained under Turkish rule. Modern Serbia began with a rebellion led by Kara George in 1807, a struggle which ended with the establishment of a principality under Milosh Obrenovitch, subject to the overlordship of the Sultan, in 1817. Russia obtained for this principality an increase of territory in 1833, and became its chief protector. Austro-Russian rivalry in Serbia was reflected in the feud between the rival dynasties of Serbian princes, the Obrenovitch and Karageorgevitch lines. The latter finally triumphed in 1902 and confirmed Serbia's leaning towards a Russian alliance and hostility to Austria.

Serbia and Montenegro were made entirely independent and enlarged at the Congress of Berlin (1878). Against this must be set the handing over of Bosnia (which had rebelled against the Turks) to Austrian rule under Turkish overlordship. Serbia celebrated her nationhood in melancholy fashion by an unsuccessful attack on the newly-established rival state of Bulgaria (1885). In time, however, Greeks, Serbians, and Bulgarians came to see that their common interests demanded an alliance against Turkey, and this was formed in 1912. The victory was rapid and surprisingly complete, and was followed by a second war in 1913 over the division of the territory ceded by Turkey. Serbia, again on the victorious side, gained large increases of territory in Macedonia, absorbing many Albanians and Macedonians.

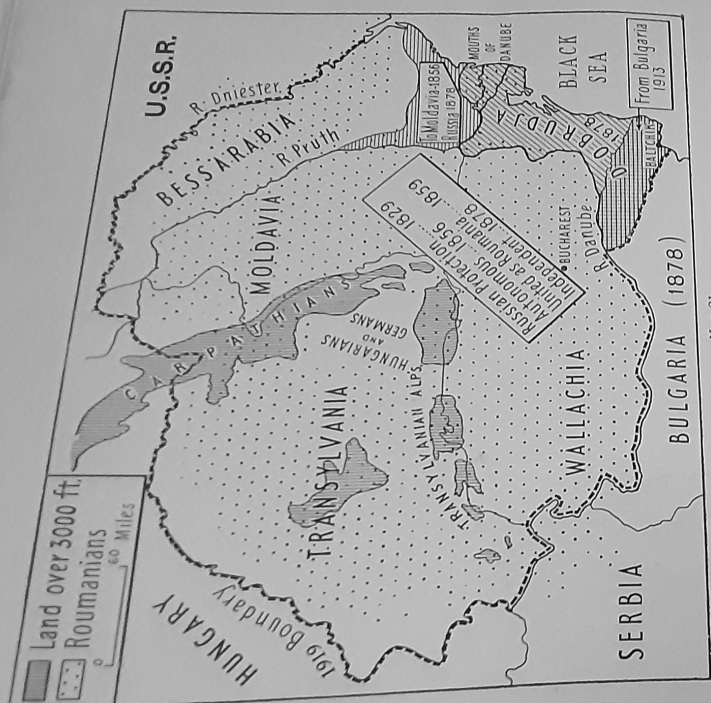
Serbia was now full of nationalist feeling, and Austria felt endangered by her ambitions. The Triple Alliance (see pages 62-3) had not ventured to intervene in the Balkan Wars, but insisted on Albania being made a separate state at the peace. Serbia was barred from the sea, and, full of dissatisfied ambition, the Serbs encouraged the unrest among the South Slav races in Austria-Hungary. On their side, Germany and Austria found Serbia blocking their proposed through railway route to Baghdad and the Persian Gulf, and controlling Austria's outlet to the Aegean by way of the Morava-Vardar valleys. It was in these circumstances that the murder of the Austrian heir, Archduke Francis Ferdinand, by a Serbian student at Serajevo, occasioned the First World War.



MAP 20.—THE BULGARIAN PROBLEM

THE Bulgarian nationalist movement first made itself known to the world in the rebellion of 1876 against Turkish rule. This rebellion was encouraged by Russian pan-Slav agents, who hoped to secure control of Bulgaria for Russia. The revolt was ruthlessly suppressed by the Turkish irregulars known as Baah-Bazouks, whose atrocities shocked the civilized world. Russian intervention resulted in the Treaty of San Stefano, which would have created a large Bulgarian state including Macedonia and having an outlet to the Aegean Sea. At the Congress of Berlin (1878) this treaty was drastically revised, for Britain and Austria feared Russian control of the Balkans through a dominant Bulgaria. A small principality of Bulgaria was set up, autonomous but not independent, and a new province of Eastern Roumelia created, in the Turkish Empire, but under guarantee of freedom and good government. From this time dissatisfied Bulgarians claimed the boundaries of San Stefano, which admittedly coincided more closely with those of Bulgarian nationality (if the Macedonians are chiefly Bulgarian, a disputed point) than any later boundaries of Bulgaria.

The Bulgarians surprised Europe by driving out their Russian advisers, and by uniting Eastern Roumelia with Bulgaria in 1885. The only attempt to prevent the union came from the Serbs, whose unsuccessful attack was the first clear demonstration of the rivalries and hatreds of the new Balkan nations. From 1886, when Ferdinand of Coburg became prince, Bulgaria forged ahead, and came within the Austro-German influence which was paramount in the Balkans. Made an independent Kingdom in 1908, Bulgaria was the leader of the Balkan allies who overthrew the German-trained armies of Turkey in 1912, and forced the Turks to cede all their European territory beyond the Enos-Midia line. It had been agreed between the allies that Bulgaria was to receive most of Western Macedonia, and Serbia and Greece were to share Albania, but the Triple Alliance powers (Austria, Germany, and Italy) insisted on Albanian independence, which blocked Serbia from the sea, and led her to demand compensation in Macedonia. This caused the second war against Bulgaria, when Greece and Serbia seized the bulk of Macedonia, Roumania joined in and took Southern Dobrudja, and the Turks recaptured Adrianople. Bulgaria retained Dede Agach on the Aegean, but the Turks controlled the railway from this port. The Bulgarians tried to avenge themselves on the Serbs, their chief enemies, by joining in the war of 1914 on the German side; as a result of their defeat the Greeks gained Dede Agach and the Aegean coastline.

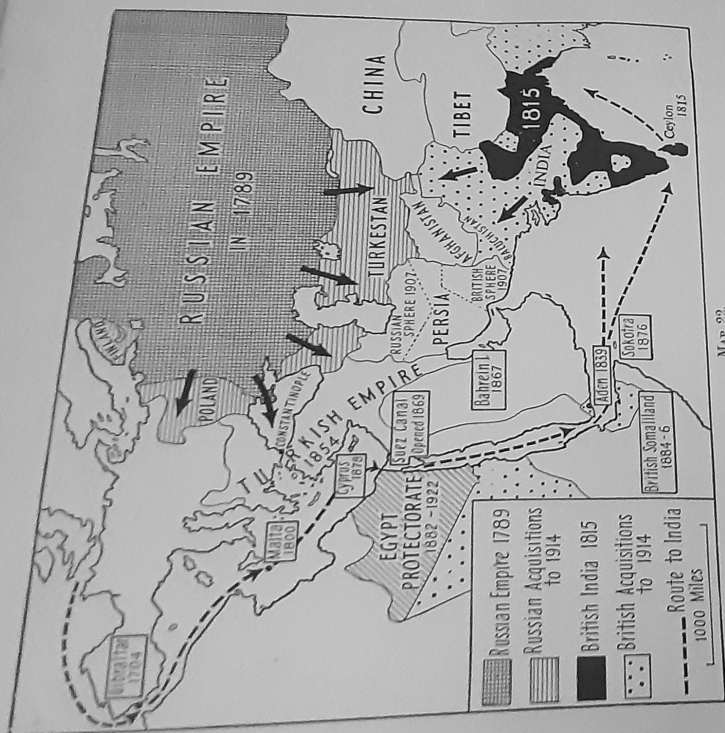


MAP 21.—ROUMANIA

THE name Roumania and the language of its people are directly derived from a settlement of Roman soldiers. Modern Roumanians are probably in the main Slavs, but the Latin language has persisted. For centuries there were two Roumanian principalities north of the Danube, Wallachia and Moldavia, and one mainly Roumanian, Transylvania, across the Carpathians. The last became part of Hungary, but the two former, absorbed in the Turkish Empire, retained some degree of local freedom.

Russia gradually advanced her frontiers towards the Roumanian principalities, and in 1812 annexed Bessarabia, a part of Moldavia. After the Russian victory over the Turks in 1829 Russia held what amounted to a protectorate over Wallachia and Moldavia. During the Crimean War they were occupied, first by Russians, then by Austrians, and at its close, by the Treaty of Paris, even the pro-Turkish victors granted them autonomy under the overlordship of Turkey, and enlarged Moldavia by the grant of a strip of Bessarabian land north of the Danube, taken from Russia. The Roumanians, now consciously a nation, insisted on uniting the two principalities in 1859, and in 1866 elected a Hohenzollern prince as ruler of Roumania. By the Treaty of Berlin (1878) Roumania's independence was recognised, and its boundaries; the land north of the Danube mouth had to be restored to the victorious Russians, but in exchange a marshy region south of the Danube, Northern Dobrudja, became Roumanian. From that time Roumania, guided by her German ruler, drew closer to the German group of powers in opposition to Russia. She had no part in the First Balkan War of 1912, but in 1913 jealousy of Bulgaria's rapidly growing power drew her into the joint attack on that state, and her share of the spoil was Southern Dobrudja, mainly valuable for the port of Balchik.

When the war of 1914 broke out, Roumania hesitated about joining the German alliance. The German court was counterbalanced by the Latin culture of the educated classes, who were very sympathetic with France. Roumania's interests pulled two ways; an attack on Austria-Hungary might give her Transylvania, one on Russia might regain Bessarabia. In 1916, joining the anti-German alliance, Roumania was heavily defeated, but at the peace settlement fared extremely well, receiving Transylvania and land beyond to the very limits of Roumanian settlement, and seizing Bessarabia from a Russia torn by revolution and civil war.



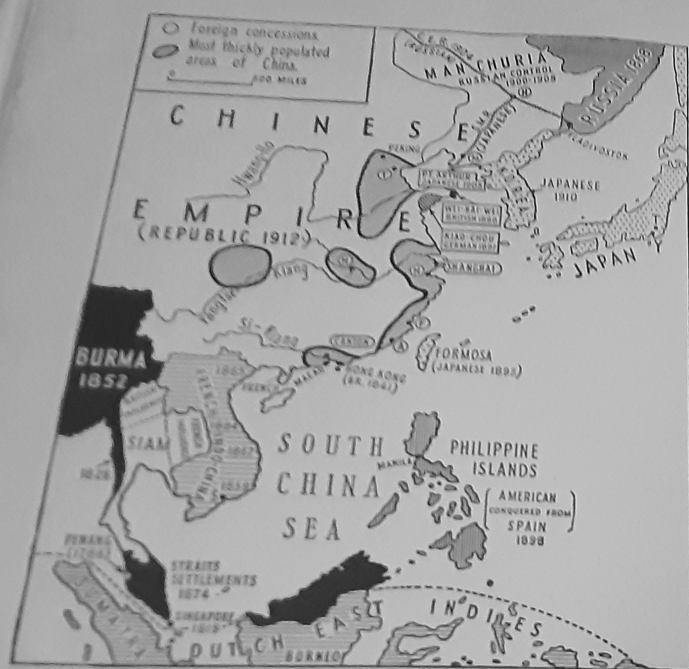
MAP 22.—RUSSO-BRITISH RIVALRY

WILLIAM PITT in 1790 was the first British statesman to treat Russia's advance towards Constantinople as a threat to British interests. This did not become a common attitude, however, until Britain and Russia faced each other after 1815, the two most powerful aggressive empires in the world; Russia backward, landlocked, despotically ruled; Britain industrialised and comparatively liberal, with undisputed command of the sea.

In India Britain's dominion was pushed vigorously forward to meet the Russian Empire advancing from the north. Palmerston, generally in power between 1830 and 1865, represented the Russophobia of the time. Under his influence the disastrous Afghan War of 1839-41 was fought to prevent Russian influence in Afghanistan, and this was followed by the annexation of the valley of the Indus. When the Crimean War (see pages 34-5) had parried Russia's thrust towards the Mediterranean, her advance through Turkistan became more rapid, and by 1873 her boundary touched the Afghan frontier.

In 1875 Disraeli acquired for Britain the control of the Suez Canal, opened in 1869, and henceforth the most vital artery of British trade and empire. Already, to control the Mediterranean Sea, Gibraltar had been seized in 1704 and Malta in 1800, and Aden, annexed in 1839, controlled the outlet of the Red Sea. Now Cyprus was taken from Turkey (1878), Egypt was occupied by British troops from 1882, and Sokatra and British Somaliland annexed by 1886. The buffer states of Turkey, Persia, and Afghanistan became even more important than before. Disraeli just avoided war with Russia over Turkey in 1878 (see pages 32-3). At the same time the Indian Government annexed Baluchistan and invaded Afghanistan, again to keep out Russian influence; after a crisis in 1885 boundary agreements eased the tension in this quarter.

Austro-German control of the Balkans, and the obvious German grip on Turkey after 1898, coupled with the project of a Berlin to Baghdad railway, did away with Anglo-Russian rivalry there, and substituted the fear of a German land route to India. Meanwhile both Russia and Britain had been reaching out towards Persia; the British occupation of the Bahrein Islands and claim of a protectorate over the Persian Gulf showed her determination to control this approach to India. Anglo-Russian differences here and elsewhere were cleared away by the agreement of 1907, by which British and Russian spheres of influence were marked out in Persia and the Triple Entente of France, Russia and Britain, against the German bloc was completed.



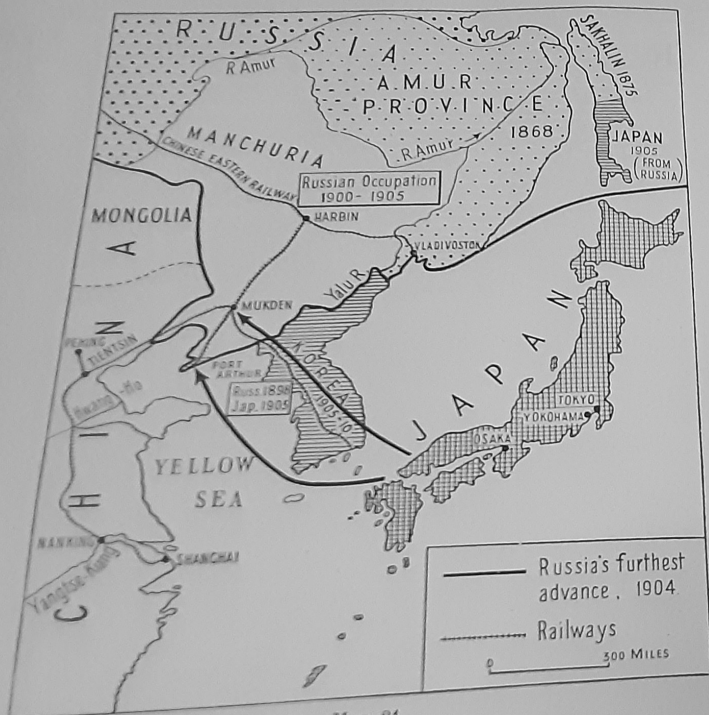
MAP 23. CHINA AND THE GREAT POWERS

ALTHOUGH China has been neither, like Africa, partitioned by the great powers, nor, like India, annexed by one of them, its vast market has been in recent times a happy hunting-ground of imperialism.

Macao, the ancient Portuguese colony, was the first port in China open to European trade, and Canton the only other until 1840, when Britain forced open the Chinese market by the Opium War of 1840-42. A second war with China in 1857-60 confirmed and extended the privileges won in the first. Treaty ports were established, where foreigners have areas of their own called concessions which are extra-territorial; that is, they are independent of Chinese rule. They form a real and important European dominion in China.

In the early years Britain had nearly all the Chinese trade, and secured it by the possession of the great stronghold of Hong Kong, seized in 1841. France, the United States, Germany, Russia, and finally Japan, entered the market in turn, and shared the privileges won; this was the policy of the "open door" in China. Control of the approaches and trade routes to China became important. In the South China Sea Britain held the southern key of Singapore, and won ground in the Straits Settlements and later in North Borneo; France conquered Indo-China; the Americans won the Philippines from Spain in 1898. Russia, mainly concerned with outlets from Siberia, reached Vladivostok in 1900.

In 1868 occurred the revolution which began the modernisation of Japan. In 1894 Japan made war on China, with surprising efficiency and success, and by annexing Formosa secured a key position opposite the densely populated area of Central China. China's defeat provided the European powers with an excuse for intervention, and Germany seized Kiao-Chow, Russia Port Arthur, and Britain Wei-hai-wei. Seeing the nerve centres of their country passing into foreign hands, the Chinese struck blindly against foreigners in the Boxer Rising of 1900. When this was crushed by the combined forces of the Powers, a more enlightened nationalist party of progress began the Republican movement, successful in 1912. Meanwhile Russia had annexed Manchuria, Japan and Britain had formed an alliance, and the Russo-Japanese War had given Japan a grip on North China (see pages 48-9). During the First World War Germany was eliminated from the Chinese market, and Japan was able to secure an ascendancy, and even to challenge the policy of the "open door." After that, civil war, the triumph of Chinese nationalism, and the Japanese seizure of much of China, left Japan relatively in a stronger position than ever until her utter defeat in 1945.



MAP 24.

MAP 24.—RUSSO-JAPANESE RIVALRY

RUSSIA became an important power on the shores of the Pacific when she occupied Vladivostok in 1860, and annexed the Amur province in 1868. At the same time Japan was being compelled to open her ports by bombardments from Western fleets. Between 1868 and 1878 Japanese government and military power were revolutionised, and Japan adopted a Western outlook which brought about an amazing industrial revolution. Europe was filled with admiration for this very successful attempt to transplant Western civilisation beyond the frontiers of the white races. A dispute between Japan and China over the status of the Kingdom of Korea led to a war in 1894, in which Japan won a complete victory and appeared as a rival to Western imperialism in China. Russia became alarmed, and with the backing of France and Germany forbade Japan to annex Port Arthur, the Gibraltar of the Yellow Sea. The Japanese were infuriated when Russia herself annexed Port Arthur in 1898, and so secured her first ice-free port on the Pacific. When the Russian army occupied Manchuria in 1900, a Russo-Japanese conflict for power in Northern China became inevitable.

Japan was not the only power to be annoyed by the apparently irresistible advance of Russia. Britain, the suspicious opponent of Russian expansion for a century past (see pages 44-5), made a defensive alliance with Japan in 1902. One of the main aims of the alliance was to prevent the further partition of China either by Russia or by Germany, which had by now become a very serious trade rival of Britain and an aggressive power in the Far East. The treaty was sensational because it admitted Japan to the ranks of the great powers as an equal and broke the solid front of European nations opposed to her advance. Meanwhile Russia completed the Trans-Siberian Railway (1891-1904), and began the construction of railways in Manchuria. Japan launched her attack in 1904. Japanese armies landed in Korea, won a victory on the Yalu River, advanced on Mukden, and there fought and won a decisive battle for the control of Southern Manchuria. Her naval forces dominated the Yellow Sea, and conducted a successful siege of Port Arthur, and when the Russian fleet arrived from the Baltic it was defeated. The United States acted as mediator, and peace was signed at Portsmouth, U.S.A., in 1905. Russia lost, and Japan gained, control of Manchuria as far north as Harbin, and Japan now had a free hand in Korea, which she annexed in 1910. Russia retained a precarious grasp on Northern Manchuria and the Chinese Eastern Railway.

MAP 26.—THE EXPLORATION OF AFRICA

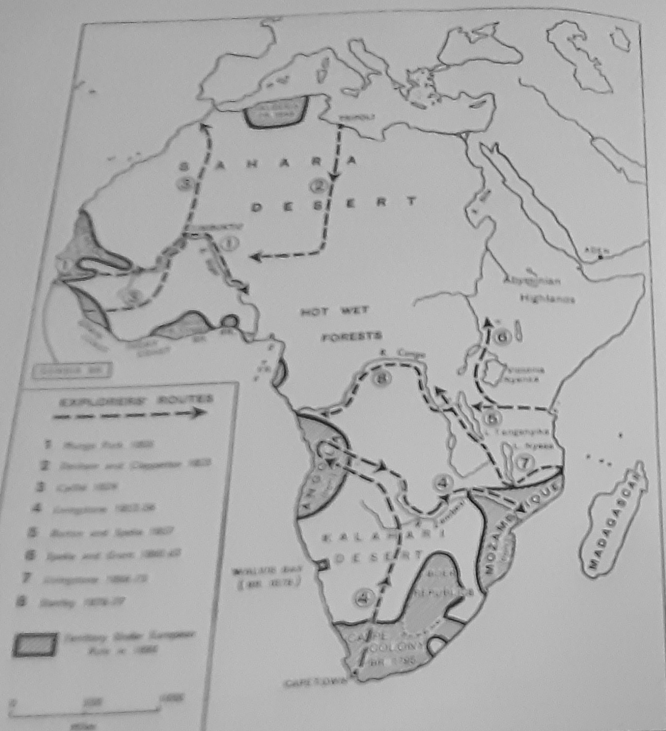
AFRICA was important before the nineteenth century mainly as a coast-line to be rounded on the way to the East, and as the source of the raw material of the slave-trade. The slave-traders did not want the continent opened up, and the physical difficulties, deserts, tropical forests, waterfalls near the mouths of rivers, and warlike natives were almost insurmountable. The only exception was North Africa, Egypt, and the lands between the Sahara and the Mediterranean Sea, which remained cut off from the rest of the continent.

Britain abolished the slave trade in 1807. From the beginning of the agitation which led up to this result the enemies of slavery were foremost in the opening up of Africa, right down to the days when Livingstone exposed the activities of Arab slave-traders in the heart of Africa. Sierra Leone and Liberia were settlements for freed slaves founded by British and American abolitionists respectively (see map on page 54). British attempts to explore the interior began in 1795, when Mungo Park was sent to discover the source of the Niger. He died ten years later on a second expedition down the river. For the next twenty-five years the Niger problem inspired the greatest journeys of African explorers, involving the crossing of the Sahara by the Englishmen Denham and Clapperton, and by the Frenchman Caillié. In 1830 the Niger was followed to its mouth by Lander. Barth, a German explorer, cleared up the remaining problems of West African geography.

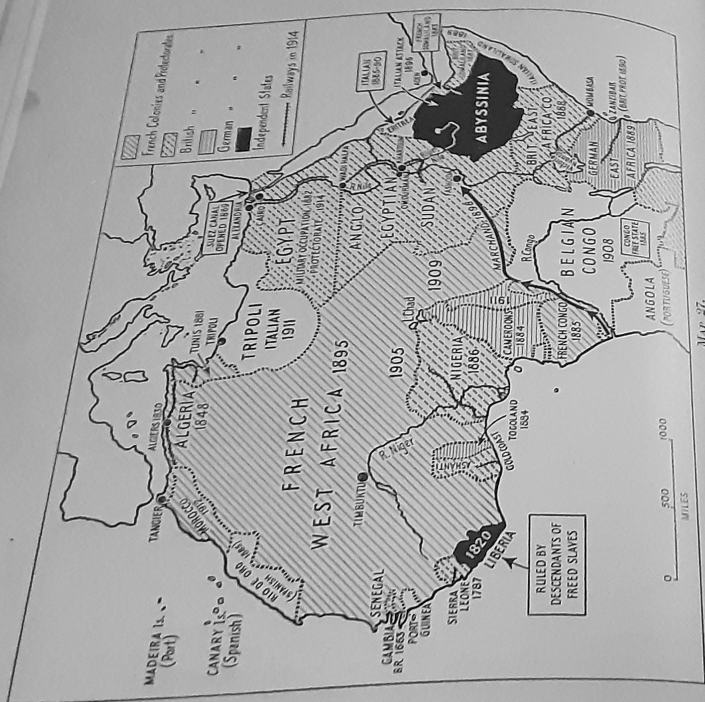
The Nile and Zambesi were the next rivers to be attacked. The upper Nile, with its cataracts and swamps, had defied penetration during the six thousand years that civilisation had endured in Egypt. Its sources were discovered by an advance from the east coast, the work of Burton, Speke, and Grant, which also revealed Lake Tanganyika.

Meantime Livingstone had started his astonishing career as an exploring missionary. On his first big journey he crossed the Kalahari Desert, made his way to Angola, and crossed the continent from there, following the Zambesi from its source to its mouth. His next journey took him by way of Lake Nyasa to Tanganyika, but failed in its object of solving the Congo problem. This was left to Stanley, his would-be rescuer, who in 1877 traced the river to its mouth.

This was the eve of the great carving up of Africa by European powers. The only European possessions in 1880 were footholds, except Algeria, now being developed by French settlers, and the British and Boer territories in South Africa, all of which were suited to European settlement.



MAP 26.



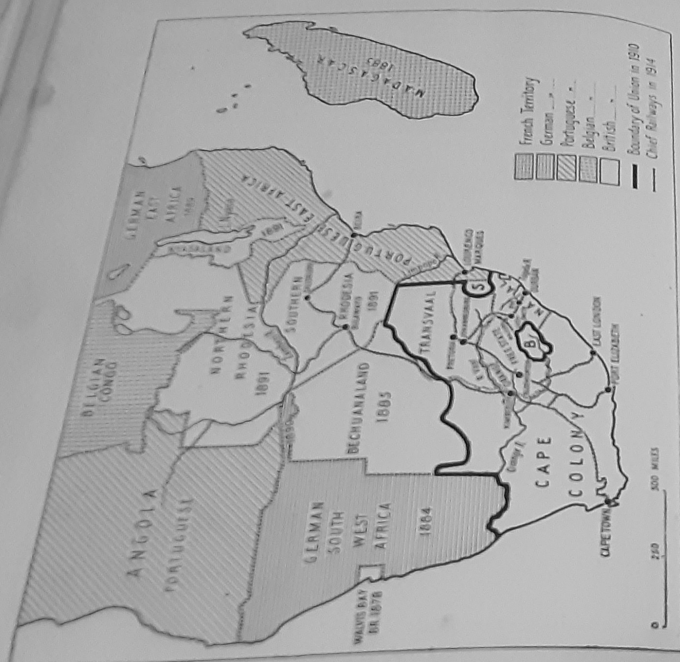
MAP 27.—THE PARTITION OF NORTHERN AFRICA

IN the eighties the industrial development of Europe had reached a point where the struggle for markets and sources of raw material was beginning the age of capitalist imperialism, and to Africa the European nations turned to satisfy their imperial greed. In 1881 the French extended their North African holding by seizing Tunis, nominally Turkish but actually an independent state. Britain intervened in Egypt in 1882 to protect her investments and the Suez Canal route against a nationalist rising, and the British army was never withdrawn. Gordon's disaster at Khartoum in 1885 was followed thirteen years later by the Anglo-Egyptian conquest of the Sudan.

Meanwhile in 1884 the real scramble for African territory began. Leopold I., King of the Belgians, had formed a company, with philanthropic motives, to set up an International Congo Free State. The Berlin Conference of 1884-5 delimited this territory (later the Belgian Congo and a by-word for atrocities and misgovernment), and provided for free trade in the Congo basin and on the Niger. Just prior to the Conference Germany had hoisted her flag in Togoland, the Cameroons, and South-West Africa (see pages 56-7), and these claims were recognised by the Conference. As a counterbalance France secured control of the French Congo, and Britain's protectorate over Nigeria was recognised.

The same process was going on in East Africa. The French secured their strategic position in Somaliland, on the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb, in 1863. Between 1885 and 1890 the Italians established their power in Eritrea, and sought to extend it over the whole of Abyssinia, and British and Italian Somaliland were also staked out. In the same years the future of the coastline to the south of Somaliland, the territory of the Sultan of Zanzibar, was being settled. Here German agents had made agreements with chiefs in the interior, and ultimately the Sultan, under pressure from Britain, granted the northern portion of his lands to the British East Africa Company and the southern to Germany. By the Anglo-German Treaty of 1890 all boundary questions between the two powers were settled, and Zanzibar itself was recognised as a British protectorate.

Thus by 1891 the main outlines of the partition in Northern Africa had been laid down. There followed a general penetration of the interior. The British and Egyptians in the Sudan, the French in West Africa made great strides; Marchand's (French) expedition to Fashoda, where he confronted Kitchener, brought France and Britain to the verge of war. Meanwhile Italy had failed in her first attack on Abyssinia. The chief later developments were the Italian conquest of Tripoli from the Turks in 1911 and the French absorption of Morocco.



MAP 28.—THE PARTITION OF SOUTHERN AFRICA

THE states interested in South African territory in the nineteenth century were Britain, Portugal, and Germany. France had no interests on the mainland, but in 1885, secured a protectorate over Madagascar.

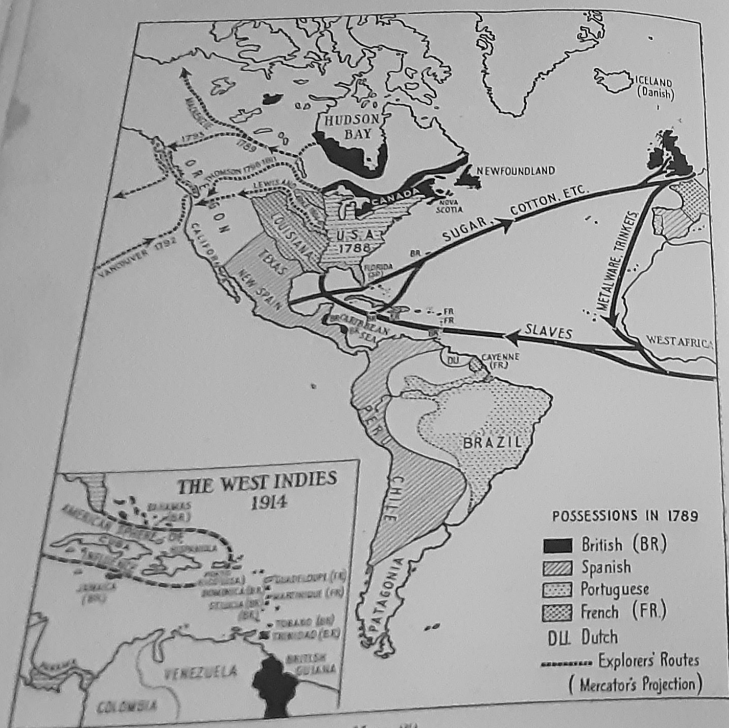
In the 1880's the main problems in the south were: (i) the future of the European settlements, the British possessions of Cape Colony and Natal, and the Boer republics of the Orange Free State and the Transvaal (South African Republic); (ii) the conflicting claims of Britain and Portugal further north in the Zambesi region; (iii) German penetration on the west coast between the Orange River and Portuguese Angola.

The free Boers of South Africa had gained their independence by the Great Trek from Cape Colony in 1836, which they undertook to get away from the detested rule of Britain. After the Boer victory at Majuba in 1881, Britain abandoned her claim to the Transvaal. The discovery of the rich goldfield at Johannesburg in 1886 attracted 100,000 immigrants, mainly of British nationality, and these Uitlanders were harshly treated by the Transvaal government.

The settlement of German missionaries and traders in South-West Africa had led to the British annexation of Walvis Bay in 1878. When Britain refused to undertake the protection of Europeans throughout the area Germany declared a protectorate over South-West Africa in 1884. Bechuanaland had been annexed by Britain in 1885. Portuguese claims to a belt of territory across the continent were ignored when Cecil Rhodes formed the British South Africa Company in 1889 to occupy Mashonaland on the Zambesi. Portugal was forced to accept the situation, and in 1891 recognised Britain's claim to Nyasaland and the Rhodesias.

This left to Portugal, from her vague sixteenth century claims to dominate all Africa, only Portuguese Guinea, Angola, and Portuguese East Africa. These last two, for long merely coastal strips, now included large areas in the interior.

Rhodes became Prime Minister of Cape Colony in 1890. His vast projects had brought about a partial encirclement of the Boer Republics, and he was the champion of the Uitlanders. His energy was mainly responsible for the construction of a railway from Capetown which reached Bulawayo in 1897. The Boer resistance stiffened after the fiasco of the Jameson Raid, and war broke out in 1899. Early Boer successes were followed by a long and bitter struggle against overwhelming British forces, which came to an end in 1902. The former republics were given self-government in 1907, and joined with Cape Colony and Natal to form the Union of South Africa in 1910.



MAP 29.

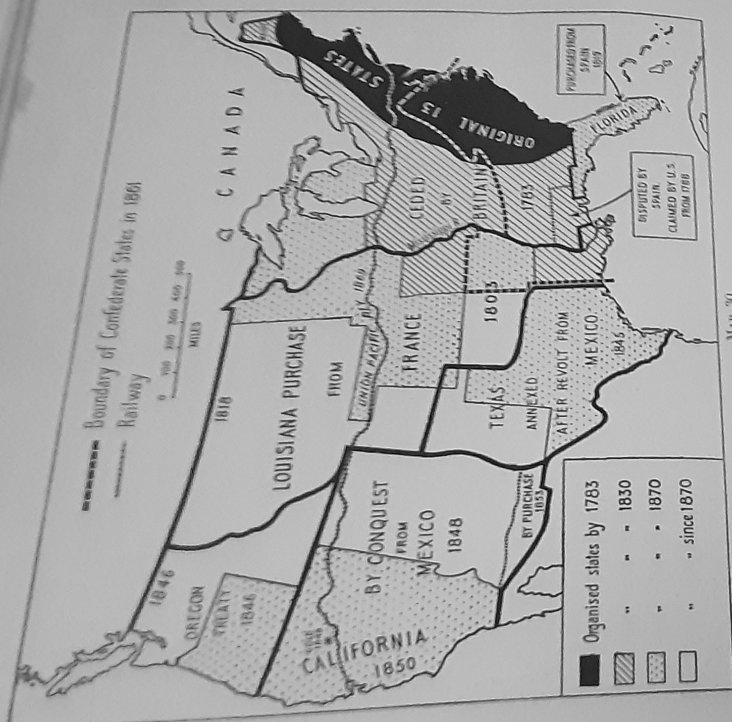
MAP 29.—AMERICA AFTER THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

IN 1750 the partition of America between European powers seemed to be progressing to completion. The first comers, Spain and Portugal, shared South America, and Spain held Central America, Mexico, and Florida, with scattered settlements in California. France held Canada and Louisiana and was trying to get a grip on the vast territory between. Britain held the Atlantic seaboard from Florida to the St. Lawrence, Newfoundland, and posts on Hudson Bay. The chief area of struggle had been the West Indies, the trading centre of the New World, and the result was a division of power. Spain held Cuba, eastern Hispaniola (San Domingo), and Porto Rico; Britain Jamaica, the Bahamas, and about half the lesser islands; France Western Hispaniola (Haiti) and most of the remaining small islands. The French and Dutch shared Guiana.

Two dramatic events had transformed the situation by 1800. Britain seized Canada from France in 1760. The thirteen English colonies on the coast fought a successful War of Independence (1775-83) and set up the United States.

The future of America was largely determined by this American Revolution and by the French Revolution of 1789. During the wars which resulted from the French Revolution, France, lacking sea power, had to sell Louisiana to the United States. Spain was also unable to control her overseas possessions in face of Britain's grip on the Atlantic, and discontent spread until rebellions broke out. By 1823 Spain had lost all her mainland possessions, and they had been recognised as free republics by Britain and U.S.A. Brazil was lost to Portugal at the same time. British North America was also threatened when the United States declared war in 1812. But Britain's sea power and the stern resistance of the Canadians, French and British, frustrated the attack.

In the race to secure the unexplored lands of western North America, Britain and the United States shared the honours. The overland route of Lewis and Clarke to the Pacific by way of the Missouri was followed by many American trappers and fur traders who staked out a claim in the Oregon Territory. But earlier still Mackenzie had reached the Arctic and the Pacific coast farther north, and Vancouver, completing Cook's work, had also explored and claimed this coast for Britain. Thompson reached the mouth of the Columbia by journeying over the western prairies and over the Rockies, and Hudson Bay Company's fur-trader and other British pioneers followed this route and shared Oregon with the Americans. In 1818 the boundary to the Rockies was drawn along the 49th parallel, but Oregon was left as a joint territory.



MAP 30.—THE GROWTH OF THE UNITED STATES

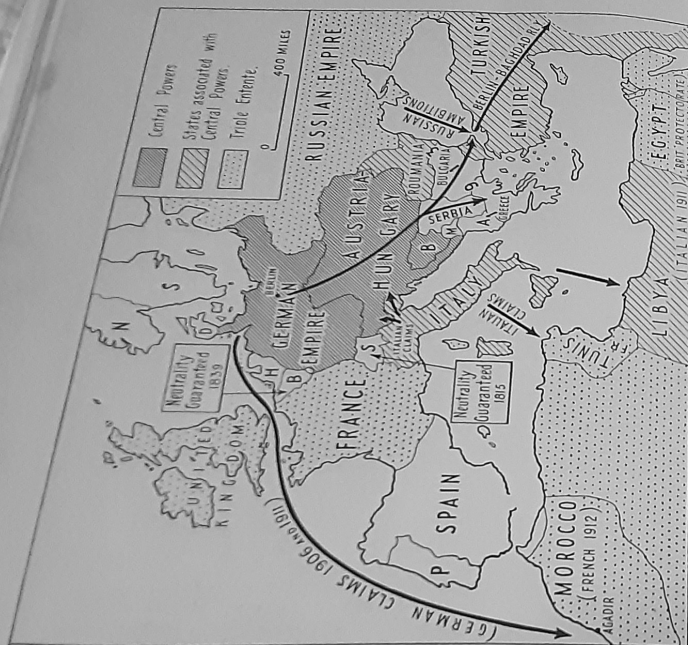
THE United States has extended its territory enormously since the War of Independence. The original thirteen English colonies extended only to the Appalachian Mountains, but when they became independent they were ceded the territory to the Mississippi which Britain had annexed from France in 1763. Most of this area was speedily settled and when the pioneers in any district had firmly established themselves a new state was created. The American purchase of Louisiana led to the fixing of the boundary between British and American territory as far as the Rockies in 1818, and this boundary has remained unfortified ever since.

The collapse of the Spanish Empire in America, complete by 1823, left the United States the supreme power in the continent, and in 1823 President Monroe put forward the "Doctrine" that no European annexations would be allowed in America. Spain had sold Florida to the United States in 1819.

European immigration became greater year by year, especially after the introduction of Atlantic steamships in the forties, and these immigrants, along with others from the older states (above all New England) settled further and further west. The first railway, the Baltimore and Ohio, was completed in 1831, and as railways extended vast areas of the Middle West were opened for settlement. Americans who had settled in Texas rebelled against Mexican rule in the forties. This large territory was annexed by the United States and in the war which followed the Americans swept irresistibly across to the Pacific. The same aggressive expansionist movement nearly led to war with Britain, but fortunately the dispute between the countries was settled by the Oregon Treaty, which extended the boundary of the 49th. parallel from the Rockies to the Pacific. This brought expansion to an end on the mainland of America (except for the Alaskan purchase from Russia in 1867).

Peaceful progress in settlement was interrupted in 1861, when the question of the extension of slavery into these new areas divided the Northern and Southern States, and a Civil War broke out. The victory of the North prevented disruption and abolished slavery entirely.

California was developed rapidly after the discovery of gold in 1849, and was linked by railway with the East in 1869. The transcontinental railways made possible the opening up of the Rocky Mountain territories and the wheat-lands of the north-west, and the ever-growing stream of European immigrants turned in this direction. The last state to be created was Arizona in 1912.

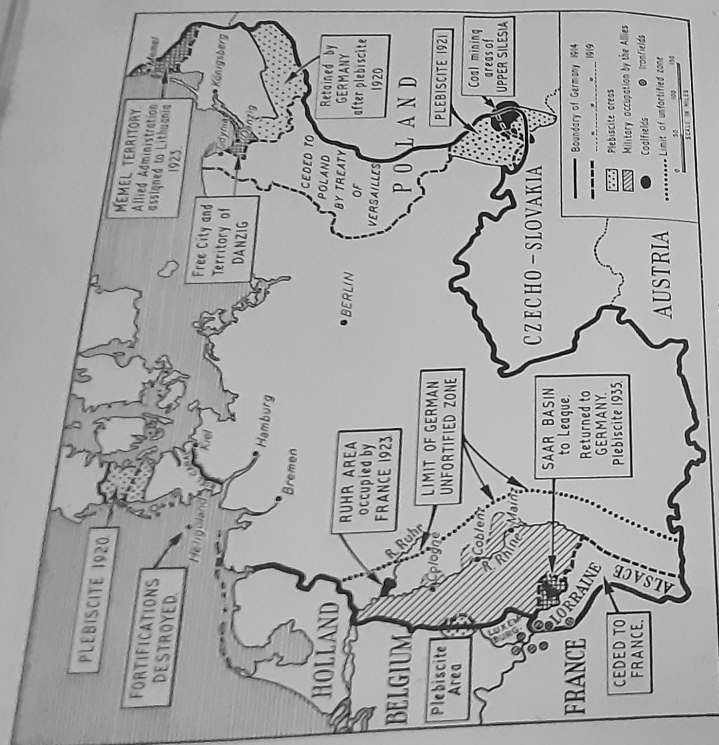


MAP 31.—THE TRIPLE ALLIANCE AND TRIPLE ENTENTE

AFTER the Franco-German War Bismarck's main concern was to prevent a French war of revenge. He maintained with difficulty the old friendship with Russia while he allied Germany with Austria in 1879; in 1882 Italy, embittered by the seizure of Tunis by France, became a member of what was henceforth called the Triple Alliance, even when Roumania joined it shortly afterwards. Britain was generally favourable to this German system, and Bismarck, who was not interested in colonisation, avoided a serious clash with Britain over African interests, and encouraged France and Italy in their African ambitions as a means of diverting their energies.

German policy changed when in 1890 William II., two years after his accession, dismissed Bismarck. In any case German industrial development had reached the point where it threatened Britain's dominance in world trade. The new emperor encouraged this rivalry, aimed at the commercial and political control of the Balkans and the Turkish Empire as well as Austria, favoured the scheme of a railway from Berlin to Baghdad as a means of penetrating into Asia, and set in hand the building of the Kiel Canal and the creation of a large German fleet. Germany's challenging demand for "a place in the sun," however justifiable, alarmed Britain, accustomed to her own way in world affairs. Russia, also alarmed, formed an alliance with France in 1894. Franco-British rivalry in Africa almost led to war at the time of the Fashoda incident (1898), but Britain could no longer do without allies, and in 1904 settled her differences with France and brought about an *entente cordiale*. When Russia and Britain also sank their differences the Triple Entente became possible, an undertaking between Russia, France, and Britain. Germany felt herself to be encircled by powerful enemies, and tension increased rapidly, with every nation arming more and more heavily.

Developments in the years 1911-13 were unfavourable to Germany. After the Agadir crisis (see page 51) France gained control of Morocco. Italy showed signs of disloyalty to the Triple Alliance, and attacked Turkey, the Kaiser's protégé, in 1911. The Balkan War of 1912 was a declaration of independence on the part of Bulgaria, Greece, and Serbia, and the defeat of the German-trained Turks a blow to German prestige. Austro-German intrigue helped to cause the second war between the Balkan allies, and some of the lost ground was regained. But Serbia, enlarged and aggressive, was a menace to the unity and ambitions of Austria, and when the Austrian heir was murdered by a Serbian student in June 1914, the rivalries and passions already in existence flared up in the 1914 War.



MAP 32.

MAP 32.—GERMANY AND THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES

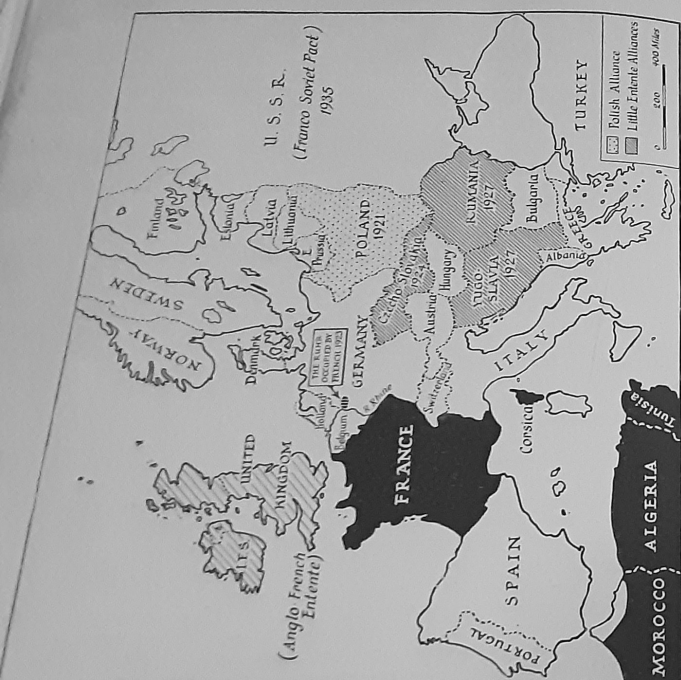
THE Peace Conference in Paris was dominated by three men, Clemenceau, Lloyd George, and Wilson. Wilson created the League of Nations, for which he sacrificed many of his other aims. Clemenceau concentrated on making Germany helpless. Lloyd George secured compromises and minor adjustments.

France regained Alsace-Lorraine. As the Lorraine iron-mines had supplied the Saar and Ruhr coalfields with iron for their heavy industries, the new frontier division created a difficult economic problem. France claimed the Saar territory also, but it was placed under League control until 1935, with French ownership of the coal-mines and control of the customs. A plebiscite returned the Saar to Germany in 1935. Two plebiscites gave the Eupen-Malmédy area to Belgium and Northern Schleswig to Denmark.

Germany's army was reduced to 100,000 men and her navy and air force abolished. All German territory west of the Rhine was occupied by French, British, Belgian, and American troops, partly as a guarantee for the payment of reparations; bridgeheads and an unfortified zone were created on its eastern bank. In 1923, when Germany defaulted on her reparation payments, the French occupied the Ruhr for eight months, and helped to cause the great inflation of German currency. The last foreign troops did not leave Germany until 1930.

The Germans felt more dissatisfaction over their loss of territory in Eastern Europe than over the arrangements in the West. Germany lost to Poland 17,800 square miles of territory, with 3½ million people, of whom one million were Germans. Danzig, an almost entirely German city, was the natural outlet for Polish trade, and to give the Poles access to the port it was made a Free City under the protection and guarantee of the League of Nations. Nevertheless, the Poles constructed the rival port of Gdynia on their own territory, and robbed Danzig of much of its trade.

As the outlet for Lithuanian trade the German port of Memel, with the adjoining territory was put under Allied administration, but it was seized by Lithuania in 1923, and this usurpation of power was accepted. Plebiscites in the Polish-speaking regions of East Prussia were favourable to Germany. The valuable coal-mining area of Upper Silesia was also the subject of a plebiscite, and on the results the territory was partitioned, most going to Germany, but fifty-three of the sixty-seven mines to Poland. The loss of the mines of Upper Silesia and the Saar at the same time was a severe blow to German industry. Reparations, however, did much more to distort the German economy.



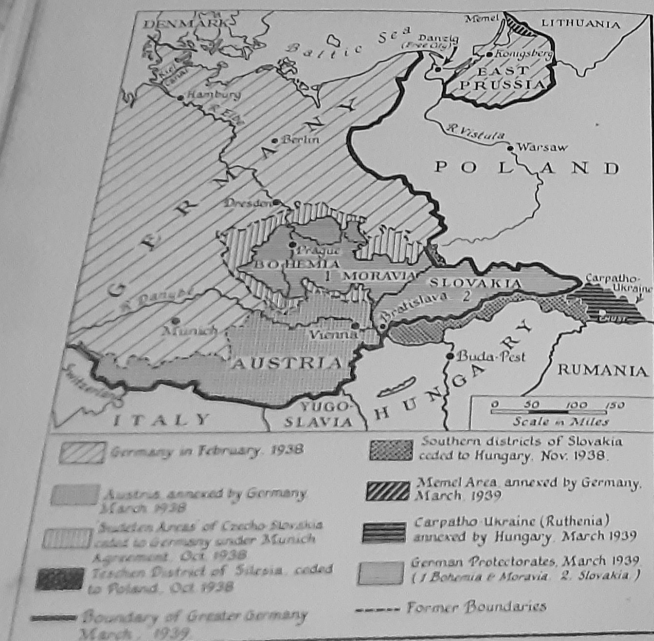
Map 33.

MAP 33.—FRANCE AND THE CONTROL OF EUROPE, 1919-1939

UNTIL Hitler came to power in Germany in 1933 France was the dominant power in Europe. The break-up of the Austro-Hungarian Empire and Soviet Russia's loss of a great slice of western territory had "Balkanised" a great part of Europe, and the French feared the ambitions in this region of the outcasts, Germany and the Soviet Union, which in 1922 signed the Treaty of Rapallo. Italy, likewise a discontented power, had influence in Austria and Hungary. France attempted at first to cope with these problems through the League of Nations, but Britain's opposition defeated her plans for collective security through the League in 1924. The Locarno Treaty of 1925, by which Britain and Italy guaranteed the frontiers of France, Belgium, and Germany, left Eastern Europe unsettled, but it was followed by Germany's admission to the League and a Franco-German rapprochement in the days of Briand and Stresemann.

Meanwhile France, having helped the Poles to throw back a Soviet attack, had made an alliance with Poland in 1921. She encouraged the formation of the Little Entente of Czechoslovakia, Rumania, and Yugoslavia, and signed treaties with all these states, with Czechoslovakia in 1924, and with Rumania and Yugoslavia in 1927. This was the policy of the *cordon sanitaire* between Germany and the U.S.S.R.

The seizure of power in Germany by Hitler showed the weakness of this system. Britain, on which France depended in many ways, did not like many aspects of French policy in Europe, and the lack of mutual trust between them weakened the action of all the states opposed to Hitler and nullified the League. Poland hastened to sign a pact with Germany in 1934, and even participated in the share-out of Czech territory in 1938. The French reply, a pact with the Soviet Union in 1935, did not work out satisfactorily, although the Soviet Union entered the League of Nations in 1935. On the one hand Stalin's ruthlessness at home, especially the great purge of 1937, and his demands for a free hand in the Baltic states and Eastern Poland, made co-operation difficult, and on the other, Britain under Baldwin and Chamberlain disliked the French alliance with the Soviet Union and would not support collective action. France herself lacked confidence; the memory of two German invasions, the growing disparity of the populations of France and Germany, and Hitler's ruthless exploitation of his opponents' psychological weaknesses, paralysed French action. German rearmament, and the formation of the Berlin-Rome Axis, completely altered the balance of power.



Map 34.

MAP 34.—HITLER'S AGGRESSIONS, 1938-1939

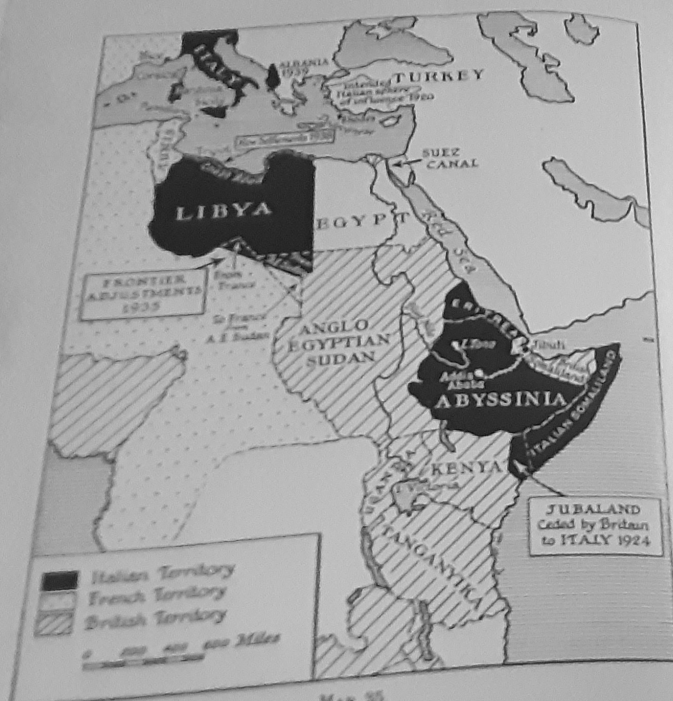
Point Three of the programme of the German National Socialist Party was "the acquisition of further territory for the support of the people and the settlement of the surplus population." In *Mein Kampf* Russia and the states bordering on Russia are specified as the sphere of expansion. When Hitler became German Chancellor in January 1933 there was much alarm in Eastern Europe, which caused Poland to reverse her previous policy, and sign a non-aggression pact with Germany in January 1934. This enabled Poland to play off anti-Communist Nazi Germany against the Soviet Union.

The key to further German advance eastward and south-eastward was Vienna, and it seemed that Austria might be absorbed without war with the help of the Austrian Nazis. Determined Italian opposition, and the dislike of Austrian Catholics and Socialists for the Hitler régime, frustrated the first attempt in 1934. When the Austrian Chancellor Dollfuss was assassinated. When the complications of the Abyssinian War compelled Mussolini to abandon Austria and to make the alliance known as the Berlin-Rome Axis, German penetration of Austria proceeded steadily. Finally Hitler sent an ultimatum in March 1938 and ordered the German army to occupy the country. There was no resistance.

The possession of Austria gave Hitler a powerful lever for coercing Czechoslovakia, and for several months intense pressure was applied to that country through the Sudeten German movement. France and Britain opposed this only feebly, and after a severe crisis in September 1938 Czechoslovakia was disintegrated by the Munich Agreement of the four powers, France, Britain, Germany, and Italy. In the spring of 1939 the remains of the country were seized with the greatest of ease, the Czech lands becoming part of Germany, Slovakia a German protectorate, and Ruthenia part of Hungary.

Meanwhile German industry secured a grip on the trade of South-Eastern Europe which amounted in some states almost to economic control. Germany bartered industrial products for raw materials, and in the depressed state of world trade such offers could hardly be resisted by the smaller states.

In the spring of 1939 the only large bodies of Germans outside the Reich were those in Danzig and Poland. Hitler created a prolonged crisis over Danzig in the spring of 1939. An Anglo-French guarantee fortified Poland's resistance, but the negotiations between the Western Powers and Russia for joint action came to nothing. A dramatic Russo-German non-aggression pact was the prelude to Hitler's attack on Poland on September 1.



MAP 35.

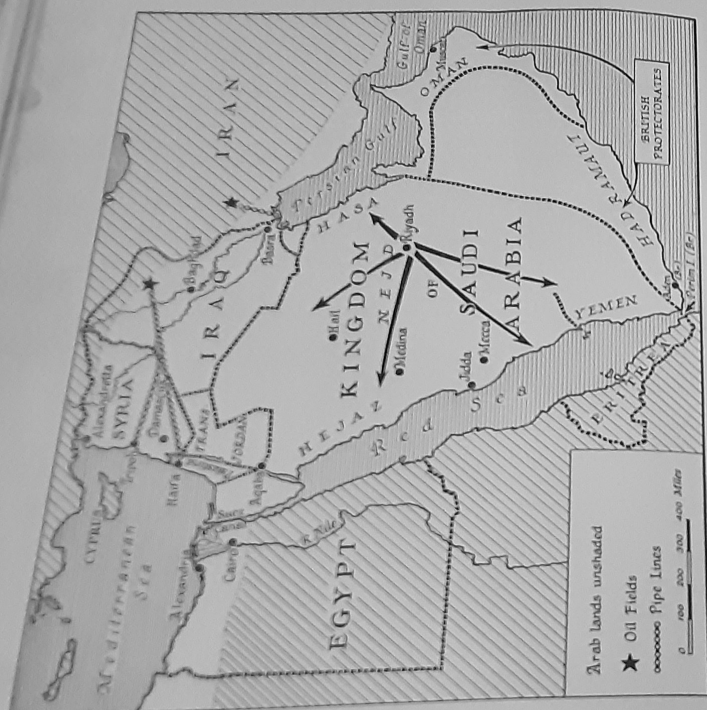
MAP 35.—MUSSOLINI AND THE ITALIAN EMPIRE

IN 1919 Italy was full of discontent; outside Europe she had gained nothing tangible, and in Europe she had been denied Fiume; the great military disaster of Caporetto still rankled; the economic situation was deplorable and the government feeble. Mussolini, leading his new Fascist movement, stirred into power. He nourished the discontent, but for several years could do little more. The revival of Turkey under Mustafa Kemal destroyed the promised hope of an Italian sphere in Asia Minor. The only gains were Fiume, the concession by France and Britain of a sphere of influence in Albania, and Jubaland, ceded by Britain in 1924. Libya was troubled by the Senussi revolt, so ruthlessly suppressed that the oases were nearly depopulated. The League of Nations had temporarily outlawed war, and Mussolini's fervent speeches often rang hollow.

At last in 1935 an opportunity of expansion occurred, when France and Britain, full of strongly pacific feeling, were obsessed and confused by the menacing rise of Hitler. The Stresa Conference failed to produce the bargain between France, Italy, and Britain, which the French government wanted, and in August Mussolini launched his attack on Abyssinia. Britain secured League support for a policy of half-hearted sanctions against the aggressor, but this strengthened the Fascist cause by whipping up Italian national feeling without seriously incommoding Italy's campaign. Abyssinia was conquered in nine months.

These events drove a fatal wedge between Italy and the Western Powers, forced Mussolini to abandon Austria to the Nazis, and brought about the Berlin-Rome Axis. Mussolini's contempt for the democracies led him to make new demands on France for the cession of Tunis, Corsica, and Nice. When General Franco began the Spanish Civil War in 1936 Mussolini sent a large army of "volunteers" to assist him to victory, and intervened in other ways in collaboration with Hitler. After Hitler's occupation of Czechoslovakia Mussolini seized Albania in April 1939.

Mussolini believed that he was destined to revive the Roman Empire (Egyptian nationalists were so much alarmed at his grandiose claims that they even came to terms with Britain in 1936). Italy's surplus population and lack of raw materials, in an age of growing economic nationalism, gave a show of reason to his policy. But Italy's resources were not equal to the task, and Nazi Germany was the chief gainer by his efforts. He watched with increasing disquiet German encroachment in Hungary and the Balkans. Although his initiative at Munich in 1938 staved off war, Hitler moved into action in 1939 without consulting him.



MAP 36.—ARAB PROBLEMS, 1919-1939

THE Arabs rebelled against Turkish rule during the war; they were inspired by T. E. Lawrence, helped by Britain, and promised independence. At Versailles Lawrence secured the Hejaz for Sherif Hussain, Syria for his son Feisal, and Transjordan for his son Abdullah, but the last two were put under League mandates, Syria under French administration and Transjordan under British. Iraq and Palestine were also given under mandate to Britain. Naturally the Arabs were discontented, especially as Britain now carried out her promise of 1917 (the Balfour Declaration) to create a National Home for the Jews in Arab Palestine.

Meanwhile a powerful independent Arab state was being developed by Ibn Saud in the Nejd. Raids of his followers on Iraq and Transjordan caused friction and virtual war with Britain. Ibn Saud conquered the Hejaz in 1924, moved to Jidda and adopted modern methods with great success, and renamed his kingdom Saudi Arabia; in 1934 he conquered Yemen. Britain accepted these changes and secured in exchange the stabilisation of the Iraq and Transjordan frontiers.

The French had many troubles in Syria, largely due to their stubborn refusal to grant self-government. They drove out King Feisal in 1921 and broke the country up into five separate states. A long conflict with Syrian nationalists followed, still unresolved in 1939.

In Transjordan Britain was successful in maintaining good relations with the Arabs, but Iraq presented more difficulties. In 1921 Feisal was installed as king over a semi-independent state. When the mandate expired in 1932 it was replaced by a treaty of alliance, with a military guarantee in the continued occupation of certain aerodromes by the R.A.F.

In Palestine tension mounted rapidly as the 100,000 Jews of 1919 were reinforced by immigrants who bought land and developed agriculture and trade, financed by Zionist Jews abroad. Periodic riots occurred, but the situation did not become unmanageable until Hitler's persecution of the German Jews sent up the immigration figures to 60,000 a year. The Arabs rebelled in 1936, and guerilla warfare continued until the outbreak of the world war. During this period the Peel Commission met and recommended a partition of the country, setting up a Jewish state and adding the remainder to Transjordan, but the Arabs bitterly resisted this proposal, and it was dropped. To conciliate the Arabs in view of the international crisis, the British government greatly restricted Jewish immigration.

MAP 37.—THE EXPANSION OF JAPAN

OVER-POPULATION and lack of adequate industrial resources at home have given Japan a continual urge to expand. Before the War of 1914 her only possessions on the mainland of Asia were Korea and Port Arthur. She entered the war as an ally of Britain, supplied munitions, helped to police the Pacific and seized German territories in the Far East, of which the most important was Shantung. The Treaty of Versailles gave her a mandate for the German islands in the Pacific. During this period Japan had secured a dominant position in the Chinese market, and was trying to put an end to the Open Door principle which had kept open the Chinese market to all comers.

The United States was alarmed and determined to stop Japan's ambitious advance, but the threatened war was prevented by the unexpected reasonableness of the Japanese, who in 1922 accepted the Washington Nine-Power Treaty which imposed on them a naval ratio for battleships of 3 : 5 compared with U.S.A. and Britain, gave back Shantung to the Chinese and Vladivostok to the Soviet Union, and re-affirmed the Open Door in China.

Japan was content with economic expansion for the next nine years, but in 1931 the Japanese army took matters into its own hands by occupying Manchuria. Chinese retaliation by a boycott of Japanese goods was met by an onslaught on Shanghai, and when the League of Nations condemned Japanese aggression Japan withdrew from the League.

Manchuria now became the puppet-state of Manchukuo, ruled by Japanese officials. In 1933 the adjoining province of Jehol was overrun and added to it. Japan then aimed at the separation from China of the five northern Chinese provinces, and step by step forced the Chinese to submit to more and more Japanese control in North China. At last Chiang Kai Shek decided to fight, in July 1937. Japanese armies overran Northern and Eastern China and occupied Peking, Shanghai, and Nanking, and later Canton and Hankow, but Chinese resistance persisted. Guerilla tactics perfected by the Communist allies of Chiang harassed the Japanese, and away from the railway lines and cities they had little or no grip on the countryside. Roads newly constructed from Burma and Russian Turkestan brought in some vital military supplies to the Chinese.

The Russians were uneasy spectators of this conflict, but apart from frontier incidents and the forced sale of their Chinese Eastern Railway to Japan played no part in it. The Anti-Comintern Pact, linking Germany, Japan, and Italy in hostility to the Soviet Union, greatly strengthened the aggressive groups in Japan.



INDEX TO MAPS

(Numbers refer to pages.)

ADYSSINIA, 52, 54, 70
 Acre, 50
 Aden, 44, 52, 54
 Adrianople, 40
 Adriatic Sea, 38
 Aegean Sea, 36, 38, 40
 Afghanistan, 44
 Africa, partition of, 54, 56
 Agadir, 50, 62
 Albania, 36, 38, 40, 62
 Alexandria, 54
 Algeria, 50, 52, 54
 Algiers, 50, 54
 Alma, R., 34
 Alps, 6
 Alsace, 24, 26, 64
 Amsterdam, 16
 Amur, R., 48
 Angola, 52, 54, 56
 Antwerp, 16
 Arabia, 32, 72
 Ashanti, 54
 Aspern, 6
 Austerlitz, 6
 Austria, 2, 6, 8, 10, 12, 18, 26,
 28, 30, 32, 62, 64, 68
 Austrian Netherlands, 14

 BADEN, 14, 20, 24, 26
 Bahamas, 58
 Bahrain L., 44
 Balacava, 34
 Baltchik, 42
 Baluchistan, 44
 Basel, 4
 Batavian Republic, 4
 Bavaria, 14, 20, 24, 26
 Bechuanaland, 56
 Beira, 56
 Belfort, 24
 Belgium, 2, 16, 18, 24, 26, 62
 Belgrade, 58, 40
 Berlin, 8, 20, 62
 Bessarabia, 34, 42
 Black Forest, 6
 Black Sea, 10, 34, 40
 Bloemfontein, 56
 Bordeaux, 2
 Borneo, 46
 Borodino, 8
 Bosnia, 32, 38, 62
 Brazil, 58
 Bremen, 26
 Breslau, 10, 26
 Britain, 2, 4, 8, 62
 Brittany, 2
 Brunswick, 18
 Brussels, 16
 Bucharest, 42
 Budapest, 10, 28
 Bug, R., 10
 Bulawayo, 56
 Bulgaria, 32, 36, 38, 40, 42,
 62
 Burma, 44, 46

 CAEN, 2
 Cairo, 54
 California, 58, 60
 Camperdown, 54
 Canada, 58, 60
 Canary Is., 54
 Canton, 46
 Capetown, 52, 56
 Carpathians, 42
 Cayenne, 58
 Chad, L., 54
 Chile, 58
 China, 44, 46, 48, 74
 Colombia, 58
 Congo, 52, 54, 56
 Constantinople, 32, 34, 36, 40,
 44, 50
 Corsica, 8, 30, 50
 Corunna, 8
 Cracow, 10, 12
 Crete, 32, 36
 Crimea, 32, 34
 Cuba, 58

 Cyprus, 32
 Czech-Slovakia, 64, 66, 68

 DANUBE, R., 6, 20, 28, 32,
 34, 38, 42
 Danzig, 8, 10, 12, 20, 26, 64, 68
 Darlaucelles, 34
 Dede Agach, 40
 Denmark, 8, 22, 62
 Dnieper, R., 10
 Dniester, R., 10
 Dobrudja, 40, 42
 Dominica, 58
 Don, R., 34
 Dresden, 8, 26
 Duleigno, 38
 Dunkirk, 2
 Durban, 56
 Dutch Republic, 14, 16
 Dvina, R., 10

 EAST Indies, 46
 — London, 56
 Egypt, 32, 44, 50, 54, 62
 Elba, 8
 Elbe, R., 20
 Enos-Midia line, 40
 Epirus, 36
 Eritrea, 54, 70

 FASHODA, 54
 Fiume, 28
 Fleurus, 2
 Florida, 58, 60
 Formosa, 46, 74
 France, 6, 8, 14, 16, 18, 20, 24,
 26, 30, 50, 64, 66, 70
 Friedland, 8

 GALICIA, 10, 12
 Gambia, 54
 Genoa, 2, 6, 8

INDEX TO MAPS

77

Germany, 6, 16, 20, 24, 26, 54,
 64, 68
 Gibraltar, 4, 44
 Gold Coast, 52, 54
 Greece, 18, 32, 36, 38, 62
 Grodno, 10
 Guadeloupe, 58
 Guiana, 58

 HAMBURG, 8
 Hanover, 14, 18, 20, 26
 Harbin, 48
 Heligoland, 20, 64
 Herzegovina, 38
 Hesse, 14, 18, 20, 24
 Hispaniola, 58
 Hohenlinden, 6
 Holland, 2, 10, 20, 62
 Holstein, 20, 22
 Holy Roman Empire, 2
 Hondchoote, 2
 Hong Kong, 46, 74
 Hudson Bay, 58
 Hungary, 28, 42, 62, 68

 ICELAND, 58
 India, 44
 Indo-China, 46
 Inkerman, 34
 Ionian Islands, 36
 Iraq, 72
 Ireland, 4
 Italy, 8, 30, 32, 38, 62, 70

 JAMAICA, 58
 Japan, 46, 48, 74
 Jena, 8
 Johannesburg, 56
 Jubaland, 70

 KALAHARI Desert, 52
 Karafuto, 74
 Khartoum, 54
 Kiao-chou, 46
 Kiel, 22, 26
 Kiev, 10
 Kimberley, 56
 Komigsberg, 10, 20
 Korea, 46, 48, 74
 Kovno, 10

 LADYSMITH, 56
 La Vendee, 2
 Leipzig, 26
 Lemberg, 10
 Lahaa, 16
 Liberia, 54
 Libya, 62, 70
 Limburg, 16, 26
 Limpopo, R., 56
 Little Entente, 60
 Lodz, 10
 Loire, R., 24
 Lombardy, 30
 Lorraine, 24, 26, 64
 Louisiana, 58, 60
 Lourenço Marques, 56
 Luxembourg, 16, 20, 24
 Lyons, 2
 Lys, R., 16

 MACAO, 46
 Macedonia, 36, 38, 40
 Madagascar, 52, 56
 Madeira Is., 54
 Madrid, 8
 Majuba, 56
 Malta, 30, 44
 Manchuria, 46, 48, 74
 Mantua, 6
 Marango, 6
 Martinique, 58
 Matanza, R., 40
 Marsala, 30
 Marzelles, 2
 Mecklenburg, 26
 Memel, 10, 64, 68
 Metz, 24
 Meuse, R., 16
 Mexico, 60
 Milan, 2, 6
 Modena, 18, 30
 Moldavia, 18, 34, 42
 Mongolia, 74
 Montenegro, 38, 62
 Morava, R., 40
 Morea, 36
 Marzelles, 2
 Morocco, 50, 54, 62
 Mozambique, 52, 56
 Mukden, 46, 48
 Munich, 26

 NAPLES, 8, 18, 30
 Natal, 56
 Netherlands, 14, 16, 18
 Newfoundland, 56
 Niger, R., 52, 54
 Nigeria, 54
 Niemen, R., 10
 Nile, R., 52, 54
 Nish, 28, 40
 Nons, 4
 Nova Scotia, 56
 Nyasaland, 56

 ODELL, R., 20, 26
 Odessa, 34
 Oldenburg, 14, 26
 Ondarassas, 54
 Orange, R., 56
 — Free State, 56
 Oregon, 60
 Orleans, 24
 Omaha, 48

 PALERMO, 20
 Palestine, 72
 Panama, 58
 Papal States, 18, 30
 Paris, 2, 8, 14, 24
 Parma, 18, 30
 Patagonia, 58
 Peking, 46, 48
 Perna, 32, 44
 Peru, 58
 Philippine Islands, 46
 Philippopolis, 40
 Piedmont, 2, 6, 18, 30
 Plevna, 40
 Po, R., 6
 Poland, 2, 10, 12, 18, 26, 44,
 64, 66, 68
 Pomerania, 20
 Port Arthur, 46, 48, 74
 — Elizabeth, 56
 Porto Rico, 58
 Portugal, 4, 8, 18, 62
 Posen, 10, 20
 Pretoria, 56
 Pripet, R., 10
 Prussia, 2, 8, 10, 12, 14, 18, 20
 Pruth, R., 32

INDEX TO MATS

- RHINE, R., 2, 4, 6, 8, 16, 20,
 24, 26
 Rhodesia, 36
 Riga, 10
 Rio de Oro, 54
 Romagna, 30
 Rotterdam, 16
 Roumania, 32, 38, 40, 42, 62,
 66
 Ruhr, R., 26, 64, 66
 Russia, 8, 10, 18, 32, 34, 42, 44,
 46, 48, 62, 64, 66, 74
 Ruthenia, 68

 SAAR, 26, 64
 Sadawa, 26
 Sahara, 50
 St. Lucia, 58
 Saint Vincent, 4
 Sakhalin, 48
 Salamanca, 8
 Salisbury, 56
 Salonika, 36, 38, 40
 Sambre, R., 16
 Sardinia, 8, 30
 Saudi Arabia, 72
 Savoy, 6, 30
 Saxony, 18, 20
 Scheide, R., 16
 Schleswig, 20, 22, 26, 64
 Scutari, 34
 Sebastopol, 34
 Sedan, 24
 Seine, R., 24
 Senegal, 52, 54
 Serajevo, 38
 Serbia, 32, 38, 40, 42, 62
 Shanghai, 46, 48
 Siam, 46
 Sicily, 8, 30
 Sierra Leone, 54
 Silesia, 20, 64, 68
 Singapore, 40

 Sinope, 34
 Sofia, 38, 40
 Sokotra, 44
 Somaliland, 44, 54
 Spain, 2, 4, 8, 18, 54
 Spichenen, 24
 Spithead, 4
 Stettin, 26
 Straits Settlements, 46
 Sudan, 54
 Sudeten Areas, 68
 Suez, 44, 50, 54
 Sumatra, 40
 Switzerland, 2, 4, 6, 8, 14, 26,
 30, 62
 Syria, 50, 72

 TALAVERA, 8
 Tangier, 50, 54
 Texas, 58, 60
 Texel, 4
 Thessaly, 36
 Thorm, 10, 20
 Thrace, 36
 Tibet, 44
 Tilsit, 8, 10
 Timbaktu, 52, 54
 Tobago, 58
 Tokyo, 46, 48
 Torres Vedras, 8
 Toulon, 2, 4, 60
 Transjordan, 72
 Transvaal, 56
 Transylvania, 42
 Treves, 14
 Tripoli, 32, 52, 54
 Trieste, 8, 26, 28
 Trinidad, 58
 Tugela, R., 56
 Tunisia, 50, 54, 62
 Turkestan, 44
 Turkey, 8, 10, 18, 32, 34, 36,
 38, 40, 44, 50, 62

 ULM, 6
 Uskub, 38, 40
 U.S.A., 58, 60

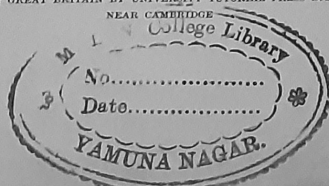
 VAAL, R., 56
 Valona, 38
 Venezuela, 58
 Venice, 2, 30
 Versailles, Treaty of, 64
 Victoria Nyanza, 52, 54
 Vienna, 6, 8, 20, 28
 Vilna, 10
 Vinegar Hill, 4
 Vistula, R., 10, 12, 20, 26
 Vittoria, 8
 Vladivostok, 46, 48
 Volturno, R., 30

 WADI HALFA, 54
 Wagram, 6, 8
 Wallachia, 34, 42
 Walvis Bay, 52, 56
 Warsaw, 8, 10
 Waterloo, 8
 Wattignies, 2
 Wei-hai-wei, 46
 Weissenburg, 24
 Weser, R., 26
 West Indies, 58
 Westphalia, 20
 Wörth, 24
 Württemberg, 14, 20, 24, 26

 YOKOHAMA, 46, 48
 Yugoslavia, 66

 ZAMBESI, R., 52, 56
 Zanzibar, 64

NOTES



NOTES